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**THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION  
FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING**

**THIRD ANNUAL REPORT  
OF THE  
PRESIDENT AND TREASURER**

576 FIFTH AVENUE  
NEW YORK CITY  
October, 1908

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## **REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT**





## REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

*To the Chairman and the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:*

I BEG to present herewith, in accordance with the provisions of the by-laws, my third annual report which relates to the operations of the Foundation during the fiscal year beginning October 1, 1907, and ending September 30, 1908.

For sake of convenience the report is divided, as shown in the *Contents*, into seven parts: the first part relates to the current business of the year; the second to financial questions in colleges; the third to tax-supported institutions; the fourth to educational progress and problems; the fifth to professional education; the sixth to denominational education; and the seventh contains short biographies of the teachers on the retired list who died during the year.

### MEETINGS OF THE TRUSTEES

THE by-laws provide for an annual meeting of the trustees on the third Wednesday in November of each year. In addition to the regular meeting held on November 20, 1907, a special meeting was held on May 7, 1908. This meeting was called by the executive committee, under the provision of the by-laws, to consider the relation of the Foundation to state universities, and particularly the letter of Mr. Andrew Carnegie tendering additional endowment for the establishment of the retiring allowance system in tax-supported colleges and universities.

At the regular meeting Mr. Robert A. Franks and Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip were reelected to succeed themselves as members of the executive committee for a term of three years.

At the special meeting the trustees voted unanimously to accept the offer of Mr. Carnegie to supply five million of dollars additional endowment to be used in establishing the retiring allowance system in tax-supported colleges and universities. In accordance with this resolution the rules for admission of institutions to the accepted list were so amended as to provide for the admission of tax-supported institutions in accordance with the terms indicated in Mr. Carnegie's letter. ←

### PUBLICATIONS OF THE YEAR

DURING the past year the following publications have been issued by the Foundation :

1. The Second Annual Report of the President and Treasurer, *124 pages.*
2. A Plan for an Exchange of Teachers between Prussia and the United States, *7 pages.*

3. The Rules for the Admission of Institutions and for the Granting of Retiring Allowances, *12 pages*.
4. The Financial Status of the Professor in America and in Germany, Bulletin Number Two, *101 pages*.

The publications of the Foundation are sent to all colleges and universities in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland, to a selected list of libraries in America and Europe, and to a representative list of professors and teachers in America and Europe. The demand for these publications has been large and, while the distribution has been a generous one, it has been found impossible to supply all the copies of the reports which have been asked for. The First Annual Report can no longer be furnished.

### THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

THE minutes of the meetings of the executive committee held throughout the year have been printed and sent to each member of the board so that the details of the proceedings of the committee are already in the hands of the trustees. The stated meetings of the committee are held on the first Thursday of each month. During the fiscal year 1907-1908 eight meetings were held.

The personnel of the committee has remained the same as in the previous year, the two members whose terms expired with the last annual meeting having been unanimously reelected.

The action of the executive committee so far as it concerned the admission of institutions and the voting of retiring allowances is given in full in the following pages. The committee devoted considerable time to the discussion of the relations of tax-supported institutions to the retiring allowance system. This matter is also fully treated elsewhere. It was resolved that before any institution is admitted to the accepted list it should be visited by the president of the Foundation or his representative, and the president of the Foundation was authorized to take such time of the office staff and to make such expenditure as would be necessary to examine with care entrance requirements and other conditions in connection with the applications for admission of institutions.

Two special recommendations were made by the executive committee to the board of trustees and, being adopted by the board, were incorporated in the rules of the Foundation. By one of these recommendations the maximum amount of a retiring allowance was raised from \$3000 to \$4000, and by the other the executive committee was directed to grant a pension to the widow of a professor in an accepted institution who has been for ten years married to the professor, the pension to be one half of what the husband would have been entitled to receive. Heretofore the pensions to widows have been only permissory. Numerous letters from professors and the expression of educators who had visited the officers of the Foundation convinced the



trustees that no part of the retiring allowance system would be more helpful and more appreciated than pensions to widows. Such pensions were therefore raised from discretionary ones to a certain provision by the adoption of the following rule:

"Any person who has been for ten years the wife of a professor either in receipt of a pension or entitled to receive one shall receive during her widowhood one half of the allowance to which her husband was entitled."

The committee interpreted several of the rules as applications were acted upon. It held that a widow's pension ceases upon her re-marriage. It construed the rules to mean that a retiring allowance granted to a professor not in an accepted institution, if the professor did not retire at the end of the current academic year, would need to come again before the committee for consideration.

It was resolved that a professor going from a college or university to engage in research under the Carnegie Institution of Washington did not thereby forfeit a retiring allowance and could count years so spent in research in determining his retired pay.

At each meeting of the committee a detailed statement of receipts and expenditures for the preceding month was presented by the treasurer. These statements are published in full with the minutes of the various meetings.

The committee approved the investment during the year of \$171,000 of surplus income in securities recommended by the sub-committee on finance. This sub-committee consists of Mr. Franks, Mr. Vanderlip, and the treasurer.

### DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES

THE following tables give in detail the list of persons who have accepted retiring allowances during the fiscal year just closed, together with a summary showing the age, service, and average payment.

During the year seventy-eight names have been added to the retiring allowance roll at a total cost of \$113,765. Of these, thirty-nine were professors in accepted institutions and twenty-four in institutions not on the accepted list, while fifteen were widows of professors. Thirteen persons in the retired list died during the year and two temporary allowances were discontinued, so that the total addition to the list was sixty-three names.

The tables on pages 9 and 10 give information concerning the number of retiring allowances in force at the end of the fiscal year and the geographical distribution of these allowances. A comparison of the retiring allowances in force at the end of the year 1906-7 and the end of the year 1907-8 is afforded by the tables on pages 11 and 12.



# RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

OCTOBER 1, 1907, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Retirement</i>
AMHERST COLLEGE.....	EDWARD PAYSON CROWELL, D.D.	Professor of Latin.....	July, 1908
BATES COLLEGE.....	JAMES ALBERT HOWE, D.D.	Professor of Systematic Theology and Homiletics.....	Sept., 1908
	JOHN HOLMES RAND, A.M.	Professor of Mathematics.....	Sept., 1907*
CARLETON COLLEGE.....	LUCIAN W. CHANEY, M.S.	Professor of Biology and Geology.....	July, 1908
	MARGARET J. EVANS, L.H.D.	Professor of English, and Dean of Women.....	July, 1908
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE.....	JOHN WILLIAMS LANGLEY, PH.D.	Professor of Electro-Metallurgy.....	Sept., 1907
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY.....	JOHN CILLEY FALES, A.M., LL.D.	Professor of Biology and Geology.....	July, 1908
	JAMES VENABLE LOGAN, D.D., LL.D.	Professor of Philosophy.....	July, 1908
COLORADO COLLEGE.....	ALFRED BRIERLY NELSON, A.M., M.D.	Professor of Mathematics.....	May, 1908
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.....	FRANK HERBERT LOUD, PH.D.	Professor of Mathematics.....	Nov., 1907
	JOHN BASSETT MOORE, LL.D.	Professor of International Law and Diplomacy.....	Feb., 1908†
CORNELL UNIVERSITY.....	JOSEPH C. PFISTER, A.M.	Adjunct Professor of Mechanics.....	July, 1908†
	SIMON HENRY GAGE, B.S.	Professor of Histology and Embryology.....	June, 1908
	JAMES LAW, F.R.C.V.S.	Professor of Principles and Practice of Veterinary Medicine.....	June, 1908
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.....	CHARLES HENRY HITCHCOCK, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Geology and Mineralogy.....	Sept., 1908
DRURY COLLEGE.....	WILLIAM C. CALLAND, B.A., B.D.	Secretary and Treasurer.....	June, 1908
	EDWARD MARTIN SHEPARD, A.M., SC.D.	Professor of Biology and Geology.....	June, 1908
FRANKLIN COLLEGE.....	FRANCIS W. BROWN, PH.D.	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.....	Sept., 1908
HARVARD UNIVERSITY.....	REGINALD HEBER FITZ, A.M., M.D., LL.D.	Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine.....	Sept., 1908
	WILLIAM L. RICHARDSON, A.M., M.D.	Dean of the Medical School.....	Sept., 1907
	JOHN COLLINS WARREN, M.D., LL.D.	Professor of Surgery.....	Sept., 1907
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY.....	MANSFIELD MERRIMAN, C.E., PH.D.	Professor of Civil Engineering.....	Feb., 1908
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY.....	WILLIAM RUSSELL DUDLEY, M.S.	Professor of Systematic Botany.....	July, 1908
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE.....	EZRA BRAINERD, D.D., LL.D.	President.....	June, 1908
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE.....	HENRIETTA E. HOOKER, PH.D.	Professor of Botany.....	June, 1908

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.....	CYRUS FOGG BRACKETT, M.D., LL.D. ....	Professor of Physics.....	July, 1908
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.....	WILLIAM EARL DODGE SCOTT, B.S. ....	Curator of the Museum, Department of Ornithology.....	Dec., 1907
TUFTS COLLEGE.....	JAMES E. DENTON, M.E., D.E. ....	Professor of Engineering Practice.....	July, 1908
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.....	CHARLES DURLIN BRAY, A.M. ....	Professor of Civil and Mechanical Engineering.....	July, 1908
	STANFORD E. CHAILLÉ, M.D., LL.D. ....	Dean of Medical College.....	June, 1908
	JOHN B. ELLIOTT, M.D., PH.D. ....	Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine.....	June, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI.....	HENRY ALBERT MORRILL, LL.D. ....	Professor of Constitutional Law.....	June, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH.....	DANIEL CARHART, M.C.E., SC.D. ....	Dean and Professor of Civil Engineering.....	July, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER.....	JOSEPH HENRY GILMORE, PH.D. ....	Professor of Rhetoric and English.....	July, 1908
WELLESLEY COLLEGE.....	SAMUEL ALLAN LATIMORE, PH.D., LL.D. ....	Professor of Chemistry.....	July, 1908
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.....	WILLIAM HARMON NILES, M.A., LL.D. ....	Professor of Geology.....	July, 1908
YALE UNIVERSITY.....	JOHN ELBRIDGE SINCLAIR, PH.D. ....	Professor of Higher Mathematics.....	July, 1908
	JOHN HENRY NEMEYER, M.A., S.A.A. ....	Professor of Drawing.....	July, 1908
	TRACY PECK, LL.D. ....	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.....	July, 1908

## WIDOWS

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Husband's Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
BATES COLLEGE.....	MRS. JOHN H. RAND.....	Professor of Mathematics.....	Dec., 1907
BOWDOIN COLLEGE.....	MRS. LESLIE A. LEE.....	Professor of Geology and Biology.....	June, 1908
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. EDWARD MACDOWELL.....	Professor of Music.....	Mar., 1908
	MRS. LUCIEN M. UNDERWOOD.....	Professor of Botany.....	Dec., 1907
HARVARD UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. MINTON WARREN.....	Professor of Latin.....	Dec., 1907
McGILL UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. BERNARD J. HARRINGTON.....	Professor of Chemistry.....	Dec., 1907
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.....	MRS. JOHN R. FICKLEN.....	Professor of History and Political Science.....	Oct., 1908
YALE UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. EDWARD G. BOURNE.....	Professor of History.....	Apr., 1908
	MRS. THOMAS D. SEYMOUR.....	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature.....	May, 1908

\* Deceased.

† Disability allowance granted for limited time.

# RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

OCTOBER 1, 1907, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Retirement</i>
ADELPHI COLLEGE, Brooklyn, N. Y.	LOUISE BOTH-HENDRIKSEN	Assistant Professor of History	June, 1908
ALFRED UNIVERSITY, Alfred, N. Y.	EDWARD M. TOMLINSON, M.A., LL.D.	Professor of Greek and Librarian	July, 1908
BEAVER COLLEGE, Beaver, Pa.	GIUSEPPE FERRATA, MUS.D.	Director of Music	June, 1908*
BETHANY COLLEGE, Bethany, W. Va.	A. C. PENDLETON, A.M.	Professor of Modern Languages	July, 1908
COOPER UNION, New York, N. Y.	R. H. WYNNE, A.M.	Professor of Hebrew and History	July, 1908
	WILLIAM A. ANTHONY, A.M., PH.D.	Professor of Physics and Director of Laboratory †	
COUNCIL OF HIGHER EDUCATION, St. John's, N. F.	WILLIAM PILOT, D.D., D.C.L.	President	Mar., 1908
HOWARD UNIVERSITY, Washington, D. C.	CHARLES B. PURVIS, A.M., M.D.	Professor of Obstetrics and Gynecology	Mar., 1908
LE MOYNE INSTITUTE, Memphis, Tenn.	ANDREW J. STEELE, A.M.	Principal	Aug., 1908
LOMBARD COLLEGE, Galesburg, Ill.	ISAAC AUGUSTUS PARKER, A.M., PH.D.	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature	Oct., 1907
MIAMI UNIVERSITY, Oxford, O.	ANDREW DOUSA HEPBURN, LL.D.	Professor of English, Vice-President and Dean	July, 1908
NORTH CAROLINA COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS, West Raleigh, N. C.	GEORGE TAYLOR WINSTON, B.LITT., A.M., LL.D.	President	July, 1908
OLIVET COLLEGE, Olivet, Mich.	WALTER E. C. WRIGHT, D.D.	Professor of Social Science and Christian Ethics	Feb., 1908†
PURDUE UNIVERSITY, Lafayette, Ind.	CHARLES PHILO MATTHEWS, M.E., PH.D.	Professor of Electrical Engineering	Oct., 1907*†
ROLLINS COLLEGE, Winter Park, Fla.	FRANCES ELLEN LORD	Professor of Latin	June, 1908



SCHOOL OF ART, St. John's, N. F. ....	JOSEPH WILLIAM NICHOLS.....	Professor of Art .....	July, 1908
SOUTH CAROLINA MILITARY ACADEMY, Charleston, S. C. ....	ASBURY COWARD, LL.D. ....	Superintendent and Professor of Moral and Political Science.....	Oct., 1908
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, Iowa City, Ia. ....	CHARLES SCOTT MAGOWAN, C.E. ....	Professor of Municipal and Sanitary Engineering.....	Oct., 1907*†
TALLADEGA COLLEGE, Talladega, Ala. ....	GEORGE WHITFIELD ANDREWS, D.D. ....	Professor .....	Oct., 1908
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, Columbia, Mo. ....	RICHARD HENRY JESSE, LL.D. ....	President .....	July, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA, Columbia, S. C. ....	EDWARD S. JOYNES, M.A., LL.D. ....	Professor of Modern Languages.....	Sept., 1908
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, Knoxville, Tenn. ....	BENJAMIN SLOAN, LL.D. ....	President .....	June, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, Charlottesville, Virginia	THOMAS WALDEN JORDAN, A.M., LL.D. ....	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.....	Oct., 1907*
	JOHN WILLIAM MALLEY, PH.D., M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. ....	Professor of Chemistry.....	June, 1908

## WIDOWS

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Husband's Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
BUCHTEL COLLEGE, Akron, O. ....	MRS. CARL F. KOLBE.....	Professor of Modern Languages.....	May, 1908
COOPER UNION, New York, N. Y. ....	MRS. WILLIAM A. ANTHONY .....	Professor of Physics and Director of the Laboratories .....	July, 1908
	MRS. GEORGE W. PLYMPTON.....	Director and Professor of Civil Engineering .....	Dec., 1907
GROVE CITY COLLEGE, Grove City, Pa. ....	MRS. JAMES B. MCCLELAND.....	Professor of Greek .....	Oct., 1907
HILLSDALE COLLEGE, Hillsdale, Mich. ....	MRS. KINGSBURY BACHELDER .....	Professor of Greek .....	Dec., 1907
WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, Middletown, Conn. ....	MRS. WILBUR O. ATWATER .....	Professor of Chemistry .....	Dec., 1907

\* Disability allowance granted for limited time.

† Deceased.

# SUMMARY OF DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED DURING THE FISCAL YEAR

OCTOBER 1, 1907, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

	Number of Retiring Allowances Granted				Average Age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Number Deceased during the Year	Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT FOR THE YEAR
	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability	Total number of allowances granted	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability		Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	
BENEFICIARIES															
PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS . . . . .	18	17	4	39	69	64.6	49.3	34.4	38.3	17.5	8	\$1566 67	\$1614 71	\$2400	\$ 65,250
PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS . . .	11	9	4	24	70.8	64	47.5	34.4	36.4	20.8	5	1357 27	1637 78	1500	35,760
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS . . . . .				9									963 89		8,675
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS . . . . .				6									680		4,080
TOTAL FOR THE YEAR . . . . .	29	26	8	78							13	GENERAL AVERAGE OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES . . . . . \$1603 33			\$113,765



# GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES

STATE, TERRITORY, OR PROVINCE	Number of Allowances Granted			Number of beneficiaries deceased	Number of temporary allowances discontinued	Number of allowances in force
	In institutions on the accepted list	In institutions not on the accepted list	Total number of allowances granted			
NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION						
MAINE.....	5	1	6	1		5
NEW HAMPSHIRE.....	2		2			2
VERMONT.....	2		2			2
MASSACHUSETTS.....	26	1	27	2		25
RHODE ISLAND.....		1	1			1
CONNECTICUT.....	14	2	16	1		15
NEW YORK.....	34	6	40	8		32
NEW JERSEY.....	10		10	1		9
PENNSYLVANIA.....	9	7	16	3		13
Total	120					
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION						
MARYLAND.....	1		1			1
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.....		4	4	1		3
VIRGINIA.....	1	8	9	2		7
WEST VIRGINIA.....		2	2			2
NORTH CAROLINA.....		3	3			3
SOUTH CAROLINA.....		6	6	1		5
GEORGIA.....		2	2			2
FLORIDA.....		1	1			1
Total	28					
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION						
KENTUCKY.....	3	2	5	1		4
TENNESSEE.....		5	5			5
ALABAMA.....		3	3			3
LOUISIANA.....	8		8			8
Total	21					
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION						
OHIO.....	9	9	18	2		16
INDIANA.....	1	4	5	1		4
ILLINOIS.....	1	3	4	1		3
MICHIGAN.....		3	3	2		1
WISCONSIN.....	5		5			5
MINNESOTA.....	4	1	5			5
IOWA.....	1	8	9	1	1	7
MISSOURI.....	4	4	8			8
NORTH DAKOTA.....		2	2	1		1
NEBRASKA.....		1	1			1
Total	60					
WESTERN DIVISION						
COLORADO.....	1		1			1
CALIFORNIA.....	3	1	4	1	1	2
OREGON.....		2	2			2
Total	7					
THE DOMINION OF CANADA						
QUEBEC.....	2		2			2
NOVA SCOTIA.....	1		1			1
NEW BRUNSWICK.....		3	3	1		2
Total	6					
NEWFOUNDLAND						
		2	2			2
Total	2					
Total	147	97	244	31	2	211



# COMPARISON BETWEEN GRANTS OF LAST TWO YEARS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

YEAR	Number of Retiring Allowances Granted					Average Age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT IN FORCE AT THE END OF THE YEAR	
	Number of Institutions	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability	Total number of allowances in force	Deceased during the year	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of temporary grants on basis of disability				
1906-7	55	24	14	2	40	8	69.2	63	55	32.6	33.9	19.5	\$1531 04	\$1745 71	\$1270	\$63,725
1907-8	62	18	17	4	39	8	69	64.6	49.3	34.4	38.3	20.8	1566 67	1614 71	2400	65,250

COMPARISON OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES IN FORCE DURING LAST TWO  
FISCAL YEARS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Annual Grant in Accepted Institutions</i>	<i>Annual Grant to Individuals</i>	<i>Total Number of Persons on the Roll</i>	<i>Total Grant</i>
1906-7	\$124,990	\$ 77,155	148	\$202,145
1907-8	203,290	100,215	211	303,505
Increase	78,300	23,060	63	101,360

INSTITUTIONS ADMITTED TO THE ACCEPTED LIST  
DURING THE PAST YEAR

DURING the fiscal year ending September 30, 1908, seven institutions, Bowdoin College, the Central University of Kentucky, Drake University, Drury College, Franklin College, Rose Polytechnic Institute, and the University of Cincinnati, were admitted to the privileges of the retiring allowance system. Some account of the history of these institutions and of the circumstances leading to their admission to the accepted list is given below.

BOWDOIN COLLEGE

In the eighteenth century the journey between Boston and the three counties of Massachusetts known as the District of Maine was a difficult and expensive task. His trip from Portland cost the Harvard student more than he paid for a term's tuition to the treasurer of the college. As the people of the three counties were poor, such an expense, equivalent to sending a boy to-day from the Rocky Mountains to Boston, prohibited a higher education to all save the children of a few wealthy families.

A considerable proportion of the one hundred thousand inhabitants which the census of 1790 gave to the district were emigrants from those more populous portions of the commonwealth where educational advantages had long been enjoyed. Many of the ministers and lawyers were Harvard graduates. The people therefore were eager to give their sons a college training, and as college residence on the Charles was more impractical for the generality than would be a university in New England to-day for the people of Colorado, it became necessary to found a college within the district itself. As early as 1787 one of the representatives from Lincoln County introduced a bill to this effect into the General Court. By 1791 the upper house had recorded itself in favor of such action. But the rivalry between a number of towns, each eager to become the home of the future college, delayed the legislative progress of the charter, until on the twenty-fourth of June, 1794, Governor Samuel Adams signed the bill incorporating a college to be located at Brunswick, in the county of Cumberland, to be known as Bowdoin College.

Brunswick was chosen as a compromise. Portland had selected a site on the top of a suburban hill; various towns along the Kennebec had offered advantageous local plots of ground. The legislature, upon the advice of the majority of the representatives from the district, ended the rivalry by placing the college midway between Portland and the river. The name was more spontaneously chosen. In the first bill introduced the proposed institution was called Winthrop College. The names of other Massachusetts statesmen were at various times proposed, but the death in 1790 of Governor Bowdoin spread sorrow throughout the commonwealth, and caused the friends of the new college to unite in favor of "Bowdoin" as a deserved honor to a firm patriot and as a name calculated to win popularity for any institution thus called.

A hundred years before, upon the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, Pierre Baudouin, a gentleman of Angoumois, had given up his pleasant estate in the valley of the Sèvre to build a hut amid the forests which surrounded Casco Bay. When the French and Indian war almost extinguished the English settlements along the northeast coast, the Huguenot fled with his family to Boston. His son James became a merchant of that city, and left at his death in 1747 the largest individual fortune in the northern colonies. With him the family name assumed the English form of Bowdoin.

His son, the second James Bowdoin (Harvard 1745), was one of the great men of the revolution. Franklin considered himself aided in his discovery of electricity by the scientific assistance of his younger friend. He helped to reestablish the library of Harvard College after the fire of 1764, and served as one of the six fellows. In 1758 he was elected to the Massachusetts legislature, where he sat until, in 1774, King George III gave personal orders to General Gage to veto Mr. Bowdoin's re-election. The honor of such notice from His Majesty was due to Bowdoin's having been the principal author of the state papers in which the colony set forth its case against the British ministry. His splendid private fortune and high social position were also thrown unreservedly against the king.

When the crisis came, Bowdoin was made president of the provincial council, the supreme authority in Massachusetts after the collapse of the royal authority. He presided over the convention that framed the state constitution, and in 1785 he was elected governor. His governorship is memorable for the resolute beating down of Shays' rebellion before that serious menace had time to spread. An accident alone kept from Bowdoin lasting fame. He headed the Massachusetts delegation to the First Continental Congress, and had not illness prevented him from serving, his name would probably have occupied the place on the Declaration of Independence now held by his substitute, John Hancock.

Governor Bowdoin's son, the third James Bowdoin, successively Minister to Spain and to France, was the earliest patron of the college named for his father. At the first meeting of the trustees in 1794, he offered one thousand dollars and a thousand acres of land in Bowdoinham; in 1795 he made a gift of three thousand dollars; shortly before his death he transferred to the college a six thousand acre tract in the township



of Lisbon, and by his will, operative upon his death in 1811, his library of two thousand volumes, a picture gallery then considered to be the finest in the country, and a collection of drawings containing specimens by Titian, Domenichino, Claude Lorraine, and Rembrandt. The college also received by the will some curious contingent remainders, one of which it sold for two thousand dollars in 1821, and another it compromised for thirty-one thousand dollars about 1845.

The friendly interest of the Bowdoin family was needed, and the value of the original gift of James Bowdoin can hardly be overestimated because the college was but slenderly endowed. The legislature had granted five townships, but the demand for wild land was small, and it was not until 1798 that work was begun upon a "House for the use of the college." The treasurer, however, could not secure the money to finish this building for several years. But in 1801 two of the college townships were sold for twenty-eight thousand dollars, and by the spring of 1802 the "House," now known as Massachusetts Hall, was completed, being finished, the college records say, "after the finishing of Hollis Hall in Cambridge."

The bicameral government of the college, consisting of a small board of trustees and a large board of overseers, was modeled after the government of Harvard College, and the first president, the Reverend Joseph McKeen (Dartmouth, 1774), adopted the same entrance requirements that prevailed at Harvard. This was considered a very bold course, as it placed the young college in this respect in advance of others older and wealthier. The standard would not be thought a very high one in our days, for of the eight students who matriculated upon the inauguration of President McKeen and the other member of the faculty in September, 1802, only two had attained to the age of sixteen. Mr. James Bowdoin's death, in 1811, gave the college possession of a collection of minerals, models in crystallography, and other scientific apparatus, valued in all at twelve hundred dollars; several gentlemen of Salem had presented an air-pump costing three hundred dollars; and when to this equipment was added a telescope valued at five hundred dollars, Bowdoin was able to claim that during the first quarter of the nineteenth century only Harvard surpassed it in equipment for scientific study. The third professorship in the college, established in 1805, was that of mathematics and natural philosophy, and its occupant for nearly half a century, Parker Cleaveland (Harvard, 1799), a teacher of such repute that the large universities repeatedly endeavored to attract him, made the name of the new Maine college known even in Europe by publishing a treatise on geology which Von Humboldt and Goethe united to praise.

By September, 1806, a class had been carried through to its graduation, and the first commencement of Bowdoin was held. It was a notable social event for the District of Maine, visitors coming from Boston in their carriages to attend the festivities. Seven young men were graduated, and fourteen recent Harvard, Yale, and Dartmouth graduates, who resided in Maine and desired to become associated with the new college, received degrees *ad eundem*. In 1806 the college received a welcome ad-



dition to its small resources in a grant from the General Court of a township which sold for eleven thousand dollars. The boards thereupon erected a dormitory, so conspicuous a feature of the college that for ten years it did not seem necessary to give it a distinctive name. The charge for a room was five dollars a year. In 1814 the General Court passed an act "for the encouragement of literature, piety, morality, and the liberal arts and sciences," appropriating from a tax on banking institutions a grant for ten thousand dollars annually to Harvard, and to Williams and Bowdoin each three thousand dollars a year.

That this grant should continue to be paid to Bowdoin was a clause in the Act of Separation by which Massachusetts consented to the admission of Maine into the Union as a state by itself. The first years of the new state were years of rapid growth for its college. The legislature extended for seven years the Massachusetts grant. A medical school was established; the entrance requirements were frequently raised. At the commencement of 1821 the governor of the new state attended with his staff and an escort of cavalry and accompanied by many prominent citizens. The boards endeavored to make this first college commencement of the state of Maine memorable by authorizing the erection of a new hall and rejoicing over the entrance of the largest class that the college had yet known. They could not foresee that this class would become probably the most famous class ever graduated from an American institution of learning.

By 1837 Bowdoin had an endowment of one hundred thousand dollars, and its graduates, becoming prominent in the affairs of the state and at Washington, spread abroad its reputation. The faculty, now much increased in numbers, likewise enhanced the prestige of the college, for the first professor of rhetoric published a text-book which ran through sixty editions, and the first professor of modern languages was Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The panic of 1837, however, seriously affected the college. For several years the income from the endowment almost failed, causing a succession of annual deficits, and the endowment itself, largely invested in bank stocks, was grievously impaired. In 1841, therefore, the trustees appealed for contributions to the college "in its present precarious condition," and in response received seventy thousand dollars. Most of this came from the members of the Congregational churches, and a portion was used in endowing the Collins professorship of natural and revealed religion, the occupant of which "shall at all times be selected from ministers or ordained clergymen in regular standing of the Trinitarian Congregational denomination of Christians." The first Collins professor was the Reverend Calvin E. Stowe (Bowdoin '24), afterwards a distinguished professor in the Andover Theological Seminary, and the husband of the author of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

A proud feature of Bowdoin's history is the long roll of her distinguished alumni. No other college or university in the United States has a more illustrious list of sons. The roll of governors, senators, judges, and college dignitaries is too long for enumeration, and comprises such men as John P. Hale and Thomas B. Reed, President

Franklin Pierce and the present Chief Justice of the United States. Not many years ago all of the three bodies which together govern the Union (the Senate, the House of Representatives, and the Supreme Court) were presided over simultaneously by Bowdoin graduates. But the fame of the college is not confined to statesmanship or jurisprudence. Longfellow was a graduate and a professor, and Bowdoin will be known as long as English letters are read, for it gave an education to Nathaniel Hawthorne.

The correspondence between Bowdoin College and the Carnegie Foundation opened on October 9, 1905, when the committee having in charge the gathering of information for the first meeting of the Foundation's trustees addressed a letter to Bowdoin, as it did to other institutions of high rank, asking if "your institution receives any aid from the state, or if there is any requirement that a majority of the trustees, governing body, faculty, or students must belong to any religious denomination." On October 11 President Hyde of Bowdoin replied: "I am happy to say that Bowdoin College receives no aid from the state . . . and it has no official connection with any religious denomination, and has no requirement that a majority or any number of the trustees, governing body, faculty or students must belong to any religious organization." When the Foundation was formally organized, therefore, Bowdoin College was placed upon the list of institutions apparently eligible, and on May 14, 1906, the president of the Foundation wrote to the presidents of these institutions that the Foundation desired to announce the list of accepted colleges and universities in June, and invited their attention to the resolution which their boards of trustees were asked to pass, that "no denominational test is imposed in the choice of officers or teachers, nor in the admission of students; nor are any denominational tenets or doctrines taught to students."

In reply the Foundation received a letter from a special committee of the trustees and overseers of Bowdoin College, saying that the proposed resolution ought not to be passed without an explanation. In addition to the Collins professorship, always to be held by a clergyman of the "Trinitarian Orthodox Congregational denomination of Christians," the Stone professorship, with an endowment of fifty thousand dollars, was accepted under a deed of gift worded as follows: "But this sum shall be paid only upon this condition, *viz.*, that the president of the college and a majority of its board of trustees and also of its board of overseers, as well as the incumbent of the Stone professorship, shall always be in doctrinal and religious sympathy with the Orthodox Congregational Churches of New England, and if at any time this condition is disregarded, the endowment of the Stone professorship shall be forfeited by the college and sent to the Theological Department of the Phillips Academy in Andover, Massachusetts." The committee therefore asked if the rules of the Foundation required the adoption of the resolution of the executive committee "in precisely its present form," and deputed one of the trustees, General Thomas H. Hubbard, to present the communication, and to make a more extended explanation in person. On June 26-27 the boards adopted the following resolution: "Excepting



only the conditions attached to the Stone professorship and the Collins professorship of which the Carnegie Foundation has been advised by a communication from a committee of the boards addressed to President Henry S. Pritchett, under date May 31, 1906, the following resolution is literally true and is hereby adopted by the Boards of Bowdoin College, to wit: Resolved, that no denominational test is imposed in the choice of trustees, officers or teachers, or in the admission of students, nor are distinctly denominational tenets or doctrines taught to students."

This resolution was forwarded by President Hyde with a letter in which he expressed "the earnest hope that this will be satisfactory to your trustees, and enable them to place us on the list of institutions to receive retiring allowances." On July 2 the president of the Foundation replied that the executive committee considered that the status of a college was the same whether the obligation to maintain a specified denominational majority on its board of trustees was created by the college charter or by a formal legal agreement with donors. Therefore the committee felt "that it would be necessary for Bowdoin to obtain a release from the conditions attached to the two gifts referred to before it could be considered eligible to the benefits of the Foundation."

On October 26 President Hyde wrote that the opinion of eminent jurists was that inasmuch as the Collins fund had never been adequate to maintain a professor, the college was justified in administering it *cy pres* without electing a professor, and devoting the income to the support of the chapel and other religious purposes. In regard to the Stone professorship President Hyde said that the trustees of Phillips Academy had given an assurance that they would not regard the passage by the Bowdoin boards of the undenominational resolution required by the Foundation as warranting the claiming of the Stone fund from Bowdoin, provided that by passing such a resolution Bowdoin would be accepted by the Foundation. The Andover trustees wished an assurance from the Foundation to this effect beforehand. "In other words, they will pass their resolution releasing us, provided they can have the assurance that the release by them, together with the adoption of the resolution by us, will lead the Carnegie Foundation to admit us to its benefits. Unless they can have such an assurance they do not wish to release us." President Hyde therefore said: "We now believe that . . . we shall be able to pass the resolution you require without qualification. Before calling a meeting of our boards to do this, however, we desire to get the release from Andover, and before we can get that we need assurance from your board that if we pass the resolution you require we shall be admitted to the benefits of the Carnegie Foundation." President Hyde also informed the Foundation that the Winckley professorship was given to the college on the condition that "the college adhere to the teachings of the Orthodox Congregational or Presbyterian Church;" but he added, "The condition, however, is stated in such general terms that it does not seem to us inconsistent with our adoption of the resolution you require."

To this letter the president of the Foundation replied: "The executive committee



... does not feel itself ready to agree in advance to an admission of Bowdoin College in order to carry out the arrangement which is contemplated. The committee feels that, on the other hand, Bowdoin should come to us with the situation clear before asking admission. . . . The committee did not feel itself competent to judge how much the phrase 'adhere to the teachings of the Orthodox Congregational or Presbyterian Church' might mean, but in a general way the view of the committee was that all these matters should be fairly out of the way by the action of Bowdoin before the question of its admission should be raised."

There thereupon ensued for nearly a year and a half a correspondence between Bowdoin College and the Foundation concerning these various funds and the status of the college concerning them. A release to the college from the sole heir of the donor of the Winckley professorship soon eliminated that fund from the discussion. On June 25, 1907, the boards of Bowdoin College authorized the president to file a bill in equity for the administration of the fund for the Collins professorship *cy pres*. This disposed of any uncertainty as to that fund, as the college would ask the court so to remodel its application as to conform to the principles of the Foundation. There remained, therefore, the Stone professorship of fifty thousand dollars given on condition that the president and a majority of both college boards should "always be in doctrinal and religious sympathy with the Orthodox Congregational Churches of New England," the money to be turned over to the Andover Theological Seminary if in the election of the president or a majority of either board this condition was disregarded.

The position of Bowdoin College is set forth in a letter from General Hubbard of June 15, 1907. "The condition applies to the Stone professorship and nothing else. It could not be contended that a gift of \$50,000 should control the administration of all the departments of instruction and affect the administration of all the property of the college. In other words, the condition was not that a denominational test should be imposed, for all time, in the choice of all trustees and overseers, or in the choice of a president, but that, if the doctrinal and religious sympathy of the officers mentioned should change, the endowment of the Stone professorship should be forfeited. The conditions are framed with this penalty distinctly in view. . . . Some progress has been made towards a release from this condition without a forfeiture of the fund. I think I may take it for granted that your Foundation does not wish the college to throw away any money. It cannot afford to do this. On the other hand, it must honestly take such burden, or risk, as may attach to the adoption of the resolution your rules prescribe." President Hyde thus summarizes this position in his annual report of May, 1908:\* "The fund belonged to Bowdoin College until the condition was actually violated; and it was not forfeited by the adoption of a principle which might at any time lead to its violation."

With regard to this situation the executive committee of the Foundation took

\* *Bowdoin College Bulletin*, Administrative Number, Number 17, page 54 (May, 1908).

the following attitude. It appreciated the fact that the college became undenominational the moment the governing boards determined that henceforth the president, trustees, and overseers should be chosen without regard to their denominational affiliations. This determination was formally evidenced by the passage of the usual resolution. But as the president and a majority of the boards were Congregationalists and might long remain so, the college would, while this status continued, be legally entitled to retain the Stone fund. It was perfectly plain, however, that Mrs. Stone had given the fifty thousand dollars, not to a college which might happen by accident to be governed by a majority of Congregationalist trustees, but to a college whose policy it was to maintain a majority of Congregationalist trustees. By accepting the fifty thousand dollars the college announced that it had such a policy. When the college determined to maintain this policy no longer, it ought to conform to Mrs. Stone's expressed desire and hand over the fifty thousand dollars to the remainder-man.

Further the Foundation could not subscribe to the view that the conditions of the Stone fund were a matter of the internal economy of Bowdoin College, or of arrangement between Bowdoin and the Andover Seminary, and that the Foundation must accept the resolution of the boards as decisive of the undenominational status of Bowdoin. That resolution was, to the Foundation, absolute evidence that hereafter no question of religious belief or affiliation would be considered in the selection of any officer of Bowdoin. But the Foundation was compelled by its own precedents, at least, to incline, as President Hyde phrases it in his report, "to the popular rather than the legal view of the case." Popular opinion, which, as President Hyde says again in his *Annual Report*, does not draw "distinctions even so obvious" as "the distinction between actual violation of a condition and the adoption of a principle which might at any time lead to a violation," would undoubtedly continue to regard Bowdoin College as practically committed to a denominational government, so long as the election of a majority of trustees not Congregationalists would result in the transfer of fifty thousand dollars of endowment to Andover Seminary. This situation did not seem to the executive committee of the Foundation a good one, and in this view the equities of the case required that the Bowdoin authorities should turn over the Stone bequest to Andover whenever the policy adopted by the trustees of Bowdoin involved the abandonment of the policy upon which the gift had been accepted. The authorities of the college were informed of this conclusion on the part of the executive committee.

The Bowdoin boards at a special meeting held on January 20, 1908, tendered to the trustees of Andover Theological Seminary the bequest of Mrs. Stone amounting with its accumulations to \$56,118.16, and the sum was later accepted by the trustees of the Andover Seminary.

Bowdoin College was thereupon, on February 6, admitted to the accepted list of the Foundation and this relation was accepted by the governing boards of the college.



## DRAKE UNIVERSITY

In 1880 President George T. Carpenter of Oskaloosa College purposed that the college should move from its home in Oskaloosa, Iowa, to Des Moines, the capital of the state and one of its largest cities. Des Moines is near the geographical centre of the state and is a centre of railroad transportation. It is thus easily accessible to all citizens of Iowa, and on account of its political and commercial prominence in the state seemed peculiarly fitted to be the home of a strong college. The plan to remove Oskaloosa College failed, and Dr. Carpenter devoted himself to the establishment at Des Moines of a new educational institution.

In this attempt Dr. Carpenter received assistance from many citizens of Des Moines and from the membership of the Church of the Disciples of Christ in Iowa and throughout the central west. A substantial gift from General Francis Marion Drake, afterwards Governor of Iowa, enabled gifts of others to be utilized, and in September, 1881, the institution was opened under a charter from the state as Drake University. General Drake was president of the board of trustees and Dr. Carpenter was president of the college of liberal arts.

All but one of the faculty of Oskaloosa College accompanied Dr. Carpenter to Drake University, and in the first year of its existence the university became affiliated with a law school that had been founded at Des Moines in 1875. In 1902 this law school was purchased by the university. In 1887 the Iowa College of Physicians and Surgeons was affiliated with Drake University and in 1900 this college was likewise purchased by the university. In the meantime the campus had been enlarged, several buildings had been erected, new departments had been organized, and the institution had been steadily growing in resources and in the number of its students. In 1907 it had an endowment of \$288,000, and the total enrolment in the college of liberal arts numbered 515.

For a number of years after its foundation Drake University had received constant support from the churches of the Disciples of Christ, and in recognition of this fact its charter provided that two thirds of the board of trustees should be elected by the Iowa Christian Missionary Convention, and also that two thirds of the trustees must be members of churches of the Disciples of Christ. But lately the citizens of Des Moines, of all religious bodies, had begun to take a strong interest in the university, and it was the desire of the city to make the university a thoroughly representative institution. Therefore, in June, 1905, with the cordial assent of the membership of the churches of the Disciples, the charter of the university was amended, eliminating any requirement as to the trustees' religious beliefs, and providing that only twelve trustees—one fourth of the board—should be elected by the Iowa Christian Missionary Convention. The government of the university was thus organized when the board of trustees made application to be admitted to the list of accepted institutions of the Carnegie Foundation.



The executive committee, however, did not see its way clear to admit an institution even when the trustees elected by a denominational body were only a minority, and the university authorities realizing that a governing board consisting of forty-eight members is a somewhat unwieldy body, on June 12, 1907, the charter was further amended, providing that the board of trustees should consist, with the exception at present of some surviving life trustees, of twenty-five members, all to be elected by the board itself. The board of trustees at the same time passed a resolution certifying that in the choice of trustees, officers, and teachers no denominational test will be imposed.

The officers of the Foundation, during the summer of 1907, pointed out to the authorities of Drake University certain statements in the university catalogue which might be taken to mean that a student could be admitted to the freshman class upon presenting twelve units of entrance requirements, and also that the academy course might be completed in three years. President Bell, in reply, stated that these expressions applied to conditions that had been changed, and that they had remained in the catalogue through inadvertence. At the same time he submitted data to the Foundation showing that the university required the requisite fourteen units for admission, and that the academy course was of four years' length. The form of government of the university and its academic standing thus meeting the requirements of the Foundation, the president of the Foundation, in January, 1908, made a visit to it. His report being favorable, Drake University was, on February 6, 1908, admitted to full participation in the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation. This action was formally accepted by the board of trustees of the university.

#### THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

The Central University of Kentucky is the result of the union in 1901 of Centre College at Danville and Central University at Richmond. The proceedings of 1901 might be described with more accuracy as a reunion, for the separate colleges at Danville and at Richmond were the result of the division of the Presbyterian Church in Kentucky into two conflicting synods, and the unification of the colleges into one establishment was simply a return to the original plan of the undivided church when Centre College was founded.

The Centre College of Kentucky was incorporated by the legislature of the state in 1819. Although planned principally by Presbyterians, and with most of the trustees members of the Presbyterian Church or in sympathy with it, the only reference in the charter to religious control or affiliation was a clause, "no religious doctrines peculiar to any one sect of Christians should be inculcated by any professor in said college." Hopes were indeed expressed that the institution might develop into the state university. The state, however, did not provide the necessary financial assistance, and the college having fallen into debt, the Presbyterian Church offered to raise for the institution a permanent endowment provided that the election of trus-

tees should be entirely within the control of the church. A prolonged struggle ensued in the legislature. The echoes of the French Revolution still resounded west of the Alleghenies, and this proposal was strongly resisted by the large body of citizens who considered it dangerous for a democracy to entrust corporate powers to any ecclesiastical organization. The Presbyterians of the state were equally determined to found a college which should be in the control of their church. To appreciate the strength of this sentiment one must recall the early history of education in Kentucky.

Formal education began in this region when in 1780 the legislature of Virginia granted a charter and ten thousand acres of land to a school to be established in the province of Kentucky. In pursuance of this act Transylvania Academy was opened at Danville in 1785, and given a permanent location at Lexington a few years later. Those mainly instrumental in securing the Virginia charter and most of the first trustees were Presbyterians. The home of the academy at Danville was the Presbyterian parsonage, and the teacher, both at Danville and at Lexington, was a Presbyterian minister. When therefore, in 1794, this teacher was ejected and a man of different faith installed, the Presbytery of Transylvania felt that it had been treated unjustly, and immediately, through contributions of money from churches in Kentucky and the east, established an institution of its own at Pisgah under the name of Kentucky Seminary. The new community was not yet able to support two educational establishments, however, and the authorities of the original academy at Lexington soon made overtures for a consolidation, offering to the Presbyterians a majority of the trusteeships in the merged board. This offer was accepted by those governing Kentucky Seminary, and in 1798 the academies were united into the Transylvania University, with Presbyterian control of the board of trustees. In about twenty years history again seems to have repeated itself, for the Presbyterians, having gradually reduced their trustees until but seven of the twenty-one seats were held by members of their church, were entirely deprived of representation in the university board by an act of the legislature in 1817, and a president was installed whose religious opinions were "most repugnant to Presbyterianism." It was then that the Presbyterians of Kentucky solicited a charter for Centre College, to renew in Danville the first educational foundation made in the state. The legislature chartered Centre College, but not in the manner the Presbyterian Church desired, and so, in this subsequent legislature, the founders of the college renewed the appeal for an institution under Presbyterian control, offering to release the college from its financial distress if their request should be granted.

The struggle in the legislature ended in the amendment of the charter, whereby, in return for twenty thousand dollars, the selection of the trustees of the college was to be made by the synod of Kentucky. The twenty thousand dollars were raised by 1830; the control of the college passed into the hands of the synod; a man of large ability was chosen as president in the person of the Reverend John Clarke Young, and Centre College soon began to send forth graduates who have forever identified



the college with the history of Kentucky. For thirty years Centre College steadily added to its endowment and equipment, training within its walls a constantly increasing number of the choicest youth of the state.

Then came the civil war, with Kentucky as a continual scene of forays and hostile marchings. The class-rooms were practically deserted, the students rushing away almost in a body to join either the Union or the Confederate army. Like Kentucky itself, the college was divided in its allegiance. The most distinguished alumnus of the institution, who had recently been Vice-President of the United States and a candidate of his party for the White House, gave up a seat in the federal senate to lead an army of the Confederacy, while on the other hand such powerful influence as that of the Crittenden family was thrown on the side of the Union. The college, however, was able to ride the storm of war, although its buildings were repeatedly occupied as a camp first by one and then by the other army, and as soon as hostilities had ceased it began to gather up its disorganized energies, and start afresh upon its educational work. But a war leaves controversies which cannot be immediately smoothed by the official proclamation of peace. There was no longer one synod of the Presbyterian Church in Kentucky. A second synod, at first independent, but soon connecting itself with the Southern General Assembly, claimed the adherence of Presbyterians, and each synod declared itself the only rightful owner of Centre College.

Both synods earnestly endeavored to find by negotiations some basis for an agreement. The synod connected with the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America (north) was in legal possession of the college. The synod connected with the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States (south) probably represented the larger constituency of the college. It was impracticable to divide the property of the institution. A joint control could not be arranged. The southern synod therefore carried into the courts its claim that, as possessing the allegiance of most of those interested in the college, it was the real successor of the original synod which had founded and developed the college. The northern synod resisted. The case was finally settled when the Supreme Court of the United States handed down the Walnut Street Church decision, which applied to all of the property in dispute between the two synods, including Centre College. This decision is of great importance to all religious bodies in any part of the Union. The final tribunal declared that the separation of church and state in the United States necessarily remitted all ecclesiastical disputes to the decision of the church authorities, and that the property of the church authorities was not affected by the withdrawal from communion with them of certain of their adherents, even if these adherents were in the majority, provided that thereby the legal continuity of the said ecclesiastical authorities was not broken. The northern Presbyterian synod was therefore legally the same body as it had been before the congregations now composing the southern synod had



withdrawn from it, and was entitled to continue in possession of all the original synod's rights. Among the rights then confirmed by the Supreme Court was the exclusive power to elect the trustees of Centre College.

This decision caused the establishment of the Central University. A public meeting of dissatisfied alumni of Centre College was held in the spring of 1872 in the Masonic Temple, Louisville. This meeting unanimously adopted a call for an educational convention to be held at Lexington in the ensuing month, where the entire question of founding a new college, to be the real continuation of Centre College, would be considered. The southern Presbyterian synod was also called in special session at Lexington at the same time. Together the educational convention and the synod elaborated a plan whereby, subject to details to be arranged later, an institution of learning was to be established to take the place of the one of which they considered themselves to have been unjustly deprived, this new college to be under the joint control of the alumni of Centre College and the southern synod. One hundred and fifty thousand dollars were raised, and in 1873 the legislature granted a charter to the corporation, which was styled the Alumni Association of Central University, and the institution soon after opened its doors at Richmond. The alumni association, which included all the alumni of Centre College graduated previous to the separation and the alumni to be graduated in the future from the Central University itself, was to elect the governing body, the southern Presbyterian synod to control the theological school and one of the preparatory schools. In 1884 the charter was so amended that the right of election was conveyed from the alumni association to the southern synod, the synod to elect two thirds of the board of curators, however, from the membership of the association.

It must not be thought that the founding of Central University was due to the mere desire that the new ecclesiastical organization should have a college of its own. Nor did the feeling that legal and not moral justice had triumphed in the courts bear a large part. The predominant reason was the belief, inherent in Presbyterianism since its foundation, of the independence of the ecclesiastical authority. Thirty years had not passed since Dr. Chalmers and his brethren had, in obedience to their interpretation of that doctrine, walked out of the Established Church of Scotland, and southern Presbyterians felt that the recent court decisions had gone much further than Christian liberty permitted in determining matters which should be left exclusively to the church's law. Central University represented, therefore, an important element in the thought which had divided the Presbyterian Church.

The first college class of the university was graduated in 1877, and the graduates between that period and 1901 number about three hundred. In the last decade of the institution's separate existence they began to make their college at Richmond felt in the professional and political life of the community, but they are now, of course, assimilated to the larger roll of Centre College alumni, which in its turn has become the list of graduates of the Central University. The graduates on this roll

continue to play as prominent a part in Kentucky professional and political life as did their fathers in the days around the great war. A short time ago both United States senators from Kentucky were graduates of the same year; at a recent state election, no matter which party triumphed, the governor was sure to be a son of Central University; and fifty years after John C. Breckenridge, '38, was Vice-President of the United States the same high office was given by the people to Adlai E. Stevenson, '56. The college has the honor also of having graduated Mr. Justice Harlan.

In 1901 all the parties holding any right in either Centre College or Central University agreed to the amalgamation of both institutions under the name of the Central University of Kentucky. The college of liberal arts, which was to continue to be called Centre College, was to remain at Danville. The property at Richmond was to be turned into a good preparatory school of high grade, while the medical and dental schools established at Louisville by the first Central University were to remain as hitherto. The administration of the united university was to be in the hands of a board of trustees, half of whom should be elected by the Presbyterian synod north and half by the synod south.

On November 5, 1905, President Hinitt of the Central University of Kentucky addressed to the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation a memorandum, setting forth the various provisions in the original charter of Centre College against any teaching of "doctrines peculiar to any one sect of Christians," and emphasizing that the two Presbyterian synods of Kentucky were under no obligation to elect Presbyterians as trustees of the university, the synods acting merely as agents of the university to elect for it its trustees. These arguments were again stated to the president of the Foundation, with more elaboration, in the spring of 1906 by the chairman of the executive committee of the university. The Foundation was informed in this letter that the board of trustees was willing to pass the resolution certifying that no denominational considerations entered into the choice of trustees. The answer to these statements of the authorities of Central University is summed up in the letter of the secretary of the Foundation, February 19, 1907: "Let me say, however, that as long as the synods have power to appoint the members of your board, Central University technically will be denominational with us and not eligible to the benefits of the Foundation."

After several conferences in the offices of the Foundation, President Hinitt, on April 17, 1907, submitted a formal proposition to the president of the Foundation, suggesting the following plan: "That the synods of Kentucky agree that the board of trustees shall be made self-perpetuating, the election of new members being reported to the synods each year, the synods retaining the power of veto, but the synods by joint resolution declaring that the veto power shall never be exercised on sectarian grounds." On May 10 the president of the Foundation replied that the executive committee directed him to say that the committee felt such an arrange-



ment as the one suggested, "under which the board of trustees might become self-perpetuating, but the synods should retain the power of veto, would be an arrangement still leaving the institution under the control of the denomination. . . . Our legal advisers tell us that we have no latitude in a matter of this sort, and that we run a considerable risk of violating our charter if we give retiring allowances in an institution which, by any technical form, is still under the control of a denominational body."

On November 18, 1907, President Hinitt formally advised the president of the Foundation that the Synod of Kentucky of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America and the Synod of Kentucky of the Presbyterian Church in the United States had each resolved to resign its respective power of electing half of the board of trustees of the Central University of Kentucky, and that therefore on November 7 the agreement of consolidation between the Centre College of Kentucky and the Central University of Kentucky had been amended, pursuant to the laws of the state, so as to provide hereafter that the board of trustees of the consolidated university should be self-perpetuating. This agreement also provided that "no denominational or sectarian test shall be applied in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers, nor in the admission of students, and no religious doctrines peculiar to any one sect of Christians shall be inculcated by any professors in said university." The calendars of the preparatory schools of the university, under which those schools could not be credited by the Foundation with full fourteen units, were altered so as to bring them up to the fourteen unit standard, and on March 26, 1908, the university was admitted to a full participation in the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation.

#### DRURY COLLEGE

In 1869 the Reverend H. B. Fry, a graduate of Oberlin College, came to Carthage, Missouri, to take up the work of the Congregational churches in that section. As soon as he had become acquainted with southwestern Missouri he felt that the predominant need was for a centre of educational influence. It is difficult to realize that in a state which had been admitted into the Union fifty years before, and within two hundred miles of St. Louis, the conditions were as much those of the pioneers as prevailed at the time in Missoula or Cheyenne. It was only ten years since the Delaware Indians had given up the country to the undisturbed occupancy of the white man. It was not until the year after Mr. Fry took up his pastoral charge that communication with the outside world changed from the horse and the ox-team to that of the locomotive.

Southwestern Missouri had suffered, in addition, from a burden which had never befallen the pioneer communities of the Rocky Mountains and the north Pacific coast. A few feeble tribes of scattered Indians had been the only danger of those regions, and the danger, such as it was, had served to bind all the white settlers in a



common bond. But Missouri had been the theatre of a civil war, which in this section had assumed a character singularly relentless. Springfield was early recognized as the strategic key to half the state. Battles which deeply concerned Washington and Richmond were fought in its neighborhood, and the city repeatedly changed hands between Union armies with their base around the state capital and Confederate armies advancing from Arkansas.

In 1869 the streets and houses of Springfield still showed the effects of Fremont's occupation and Marmaduke's assaults, while mounds overgrown with the vegetation of five years indicated to the traveler the ruins of a hamlet or plantation fired by some band like that of Quantrell's. Such educational institutions as had existed prior to 1860 had been swept away. A generation was approaching manhood which, growing up in war and the poverty following war, had never possessed any opportunity for systematic education. In such circumstances the desire for knowledge runs low. Mr. Fry and some of his colleagues in the Congregational ministry felt that a strong influence was necessary to preserve this fine Anglo-Saxon stock from degenerating into ignorance, and undeterred by the impoverished condition of the people and the indifference to learning naturally felt by a youth to whom education is only a tradition, they determined to found a college.

Mr. Fry and the Reverend H. D. Lowing of Neosho, a town on the border of the then Indian Territory, presented their project to the Springfield Association of Congregational Churches at its meeting in Springfield in March, 1872. Mr. Lowing preached and Mr. Fry introduced the resolutions pledging support in the establishment of a college. The association adopted the resolutions and appointed a committee to select a location. After a contest between Springfield, Neosho, and Pierce City, Springfield was selected as the best situation, Dr. Nathan J. Morrison of the Congregational College and Education Society strongly advocating that city, and promising aid from the society and friends in the east if the college were fixed there and Springfield herself raised an adequate sum. The college was at first chartered as Springfield College, and Dr. Morrison was the first president. The name was later changed to Drury College, in honor of Mr. Samuel F. Drury of Michigan, an early giver.

The opening was attended with many discouraging circumstances. The building was unfinished, and a lien for seven thousand dollars had been filed against it. The panic year of 1873 made dark days for any institution dependent upon gifts. One most encouraging feature was, however, always present. The boys of the Ozarks only needed an opportunity to revive the hereditary desire for knowledge. As soon as the institution was actually open, the evil effects of the ten years of educational stagnation began to lose their influence, and the classes were full of students who had ridden a hundred miles on horseback in order to attend college.

Such a desire for education generally creates the means. A citizen of Tunbridge Wells, England, gave fifteen thousand dollars and thus made possible the completion

of the first building. Mrs. Valeria S. Stone of Massachusetts, a generous friend of Bowdoin College, a few years later gave fifty thousand dollars for an endowment and thirty thousand additional. With Mrs. Stone's gift a chapel was built, whose cornerstone was laid in 1880, in the presence of one hundred and fifty members of the National Congregational Council, then in session in St. Louis. This chapel was burnt before it was completed, but the people of Springfield came forward with what the insurance did not cover, and the chapel was rebuilt.

In 1887 the college, however, had again fallen into a disastrous financial condition. Its paper was dishonored, even grocery bills were unpaid, and a deficit of from five to seven thousand dollars was annually expected in this emergency. Dr. Francis T. Ingalls became the second president. Through good business administration, the coöperation of the alumni, and many small gifts, the funded debt of \$44,000 was paid off, the chapel was fully completed, and when Dr. Ingalls died, in 1892, the college was ready to inaugurate with hopes of success a movement to place it upon a sound financial basis.

A gift of \$50,000 from Dr. D. K. Pearsons of Chicago, one of an equal amount from the General Education Society, and a third gift of the same size from Mr. Andrew Carnegie, enlarged the endowment greatly, enabling the college to add new buildings to the equipment, and to strengthen the curriculum. All of these gifts were made conditional upon the raising of equal or greater sums, which was accomplished through the manifold sacrifices of the alumni of the college and the people of Springfield and the Ozark region. The Congregational College and Education Society has always been a firm friend to Drury College.

In the original articles of association of Drury College was a provision that a majority of the trustees should be "connected with the family of Christian churches commonly known as the Congregational Churches of the United States," and in a later section of the articles this provision was explained thus: "No religious or political test as a condition precedent to the enjoyment of all the advantages afforded by Drury College for study and instruction shall ever be established or allowed by the board of trustees; and the permanent restriction of a majority of the board of trustees to persons connected with a particular religious denomination is to be understood as intended only to guard the interests of the college from the unseemly and dangerous rivalry of other sects, and to place the college so closely in sympathy with some one religious denomination that it shall always have a constituency and a home." On November 22, 1907, the Circuit Court of Greene County, Missouri, sitting at Springfield, amended the articles of incorporation so as to eliminate from them all reference to any denominational restriction upon the board of trustees. The board of trustees also passed a resolution certifying that in the choice of trustees, officers, and professors no denominational test will be imposed.

The admission requirements of the college having been slightly changed, by raising them a fraction of a unit, to conform to the full requirement of fourteen units,



Drury College was, on March 26, 1908, admitted to all of the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation.

#### ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

Rose Polytechnic Institute is the result of the philanthropy of Chauncey Rose, one of the foremost business men of early Indiana. Chauncey Rose was born in a retired farm-house on the Wethersfield Meadows, in Connecticut, in 1794, the descendant of a Highland Scotch family which had emigrated to the Colonies early in the eighteenth century. When he reached his majority the New England youth determined to move out into the frontier country and grow rich with the development of the new communities. This was an aspiration common to many thousands on the Atlantic seaboard, but the circumspection with which young Rose arranged the plans for his new life was unique, and presaged his future success. The average emigrant plunged into the wilderness by the first convenient road and settled at the first spot which seemed attractive, generally moving again and again until good fortune or weariness fixed him at a permanent home. The Connecticut youth, however, waited until, at twenty-three, he had saved up enough money to last for a year or more, and then he traveled through all of the states between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi, investigating the advantages they offered for a business location. The country around Terre Haute, Indiana, made a favorable impression upon him, and in April, 1818, he settled in the neighborhood. Indiana had been admitted into the Union less than two years before; Terre Haute consisted of two cabins, there were no roads, and the first steamboat had not yet come up the Wabash River.

But his wide journeyings through the frontier regions had given Mr. Rose skill in forecasting the possibilities of a community, and Terre Haute, with its dependent territory, now began to grow rapidly. Mr. Rose had engaged in trade, and as he became quickly one of the most popular and successful merchants in that part of Indiana, the growth of the country laid for him the foundation of a fortune. The profits made in trade were invested in farm land, and so judiciously that the farms have gradually, with the increase of population, become the streets and residence sites of the cities. Mr. Rose was foremost in laboring to give Indiana railway transportation. The Terre Haute and Indianapolis Railroad was built principally through his exertions, and he bore a large part in the construction of the numerous railroads running from Terre Haute to the other cities of the state which have made Terre Haute an important railroad centre.

During the period when he was thus building up a large estate, Mr. Rose contributed generously to the public needs. To his birthplace of Wethersfield he gave the old Rose homestead, aided the town library, and endowed an academy. Wabash College often received liberal contributions from him. The State Normal School at Crawfordsville was an object of his constant interest. But it was at Terre Haute that his philanthropic activity manifested itself on a scale rare in the middle nineteenth cen-



ture. The Providence Hospital, a free dispensary, and the Rose Orphan Home were founded by him there, and toward the end of his life he began to consider the best means of bestowing his entire wealth upon the community in which he had lived so long.

This he felt should be done by aid to education, and his experiences as a railroad builder had naturally interested him in education of an industrial and scientific kind. He wished to offer to the young men of his neighborhood the opportunity, along with a good general education, to become technically equipped for the industrial vocation they had chosen, so that with practical aptitude they might be able to give full scope to their inventive and constructive talents. He therefore determined to endow a polytechnic school, and in the carrying out of this plan adopted the same wise care and forethought that fifty years before he had displayed in selecting his permanent home.

Mr. Rose's own education had been confined to a few terms at a district school, and although he visited noted institutions which gave prominence to scientific subjects, he distrusted his own judgment. He therefore consulted experts in science and education, and appointed a commission to investigate all the institutions in the United States which offered courses in higher technology. Upon reading the elaborate report of this commission, and securing all other available information and advice, Mr. Rose resolved to repeat, as far as changed circumstances would permit, the plan of what is now the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, and therefore organized the board of managers of the Terre Haute School of Industrial Science, and transferred to them funds adequate to the erection of buildings and the inauguration of the enterprise. In 1875 the corner-stone of the main building was laid, and the board of managers, against the persistent protest of the donor, changed the name to the Rose Polytechnic Institute. In 1877 Mr. Rose died, making a large specific bequest to the institute, and constituting the institute, after certain individual devises and devises to his Terre Haute charitable foundations, his residuary legatee.

The board of managers selected as the first president Dr. Charles O. Thompson, president of the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, and after a year of travel, visiting the technological institutions of the United States and Europe, Dr. Thompson formally opened the Rose Polytechnic Institute in 1883. Two courses were given—in mechanical and in civil engineering—and twenty-three students were enrolled under a faculty of four professors, a shop superintendent, and three instructors. In 1885 the first class was graduated. In 1889 a chemical course was added, and in 1893 a course in electrical engineering. In 1898 the course in architecture was organized; in 1899 the alumni were given representation on the board of managers; 1903 saw the introduction of a limited amount of elective work in certain courses.

The policy of the institute has been to combine practice with technological training, and therefore the shop has always played a prominent part in the institute's life. It is, as far as possible, the counterpart of a commercial establishment, skilled

mechanics working alongside the students, and taking up the students' tasks after the latter have worked long enough at them to gain experience. This work is always upon articles ordered by mercantile establishments, but the students, while thus stimulated by the practical value of their labor, are not kept upon their tasks with the idea of developing skilled mechanics, as would be the object in a trade school. The idea is to familiarize the student with machine tools so that he can superintend work connected with them, and also to give him sufficient acquaintance with shop methods to enable him to design machinery which must be produced by these methods. The number of students which can be conveniently accommodated by the institute—about 240—has for several years been reached; the entrance class is limited to seventy. The faculty now numbers twelve, with a total instructing staff of twenty-three, and in 1907 thirty-six degrees were conferred.

The formal entrance requirements of the Rose Polytechnic Institute, as was the case with many technical schools, were far below the fourteen units at the inauguration of the work of the Foundation. When the institute was founded, entrance requirements for technical schools were low, and a policy was thus established which made the extensive raising of requirements difficult. Probably in practice considerably higher standards prevailed. The board of managers, however, took the entrance requirements actively in hand about two years ago, and by the opening of the academic year 1908-9 the full fourteen units will be formally demanded of all students. On December 17, 1907, having provided for such action, the board of managers requested admission to the Foundation, and on March 26, 1908, the Rose Polytechnic Institute was formally admitted to the full benefits of the Carnegie Foundation.

#### FRANKLIN COLLEGE

The year following the organization in 1833 of the Indiana Baptist General Association (now the Indiana Baptist Convention), fourteen of those who, after long advocacy, had finally succeeded in effecting this tie of union for the Baptists of Indiana, assembled in Indianapolis to consider the question of Baptist education. Educational facilities in the state at that time were meagre, and residence at an eastern institution, in addition to the difficulties of travel, was beyond the financial ability of most. The fourteen men who met at Indianapolis were emigrants from other states. In their former homes, whether old states like Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, or newer communities such as Kentucky and Tennessee, colleges were accessible, and they felt that they must create for their sons as good opportunities in the new state as these would have enjoyed if they had been reared in their fathers' old homes.

Twelve of the fourteen were ministers in charge of Baptist congregations. In accordance with the custom of the denomination at that time, they were also engaged in other occupations, such as farming, hotel-keeping, and the practice of medicine, and from these latter occupations they derived their livelihood. But the business



which gave them a living by no means distracted their interest from their ministerial work, and it was unanimously resolved "that in the opinion of this meeting the Baptists of this state need an institution of learning under their immediate patronage and subject to their direction."

The meeting directed that a committee of thirty-five be appointed to correspond with Baptists in all parts of the state and solicit their coöperation, and that a draft of a constitution be framed and presented to the meeting at Franklin in the following autumn. The meeting set an intermediate date when it would assemble and examine proposals for a site. The smallness of these educational beginnings may be realized from the one proposal which was ready at this next meeting,—a certain J. M. Robinson offered six acres of land and \$425 in subscriptions, provided that W. J. Robinson be a teacher in the new school.

The fourteen were not men easily discouraged, however, and proceeded to organize the Indiana Baptist Education Society, which should control the proposed institution. Mr. Robinson now offered the land and \$1400. Other offers of about the same amount were made in order to secure the location of the school in certain towns. Finally, in June, 1835, it was resolved that the education society should build at Franklin, near Indianapolis, the Indiana Manual Training Institute, with a provision for both literary and theological courses of study. The education society, at the same time, elected a board of directors, consisting of thirty-five members, to manage the institute. In December this board ordered the erection of a frame building 26 feet by 38 feet, and appropriated for the building fifty dollars on account. In the summer of 1836 this building was finished and painted white, costing about \$350, and the equipment being then provided, the board voted "that the Honorable Jesse L. Holman be respectfully invited to accept the office of principal of the Indiana Baptist Manual Training Institute, and that he devote so much of his time and attention to this institute as will not materially interfere with the duties of the office of Judge of the United States District Court." As Judge Holman's judicial district included the entire state of Indiana, he felt compelled to decline. A graduate of Waterville College, now Colby College, in Maine, was secured as a teacher, and the work of instruction in the little frame building began.

This work advanced in the face of multiplied financial difficulties. In 1844 a regular scheme of collegiate studies was adopted; in 1845 the institution was re-chartered as Franklin College of Indiana, and in 1847 a brick building was ready for the use of the college and the first degree of bachelor of arts was conferred. In 1855 a second brick building was completed, and plans for an adequate endowment for the college were being formed when the outbreak of the civil war stopped for the time all large educational undertakings. The college had often been in such dire need of money that the work on the first brick building had to be done piecemeal as the funds were on hand, and the county commissioners were once consulted by the board of directors on the legality of peddling clocks donated to the college,



other goods and wares which had formed parts of donations having been sold by the directors at Franklin. In 1850 an execution was actually in the hands of the sheriff on a judgment against the college, but some friends averted the danger by assuming the payment of the judgment. Notwithstanding these adversities the college was constantly educating a larger body of youth, and winning friends for its work, and probably would have continued uninterruptedly but for the patriotism of its students. Two of the graduates of 1861 were not at the commencement to receive their degrees; a footnote to their names on the program reading, "In the United States Army." More and more of the students were thus drawn off as the struggle increased in seriousness, until by June, 1864, hardly any young men remaining to receive instruction, the doors of the college were closed.

In 1868 the directors reopened the college and a new financial start was made. An able and energetic president was secured, subscriptions were obtained, and fifty students entered the institution. Notwithstanding all efforts, however, a sufficient endowment fund could not be raised, current expenses absorbed the subscriptions that were collected, and in January, 1872, the college was again closed.

But the benefits of Franklin College had been too strongly felt by the people of Franklin and of Johnson County to permit of their being willing to let the institution die. A plan was formed to organize a stock company and buy the college property from the Education Society. On June 21, 1872, the proposed subscribers met at the Baptist Church in Franklin and completed the organization necessary to make them a stock company, the articles of incorporation being so framed as to secure the location of the college permanently at Franklin and to provide that the institution should always be under the control of the Baptist denomination. To this end it was provided that the president of the college and a majority of the trustees should always be Baptists and that this provision should not be subject to change.

This meeting reported that subscriptions amounting to \$51,000 had been pledged, \$36,000 of these subscriptions coming from citizens of Johnson County. With these assets—although the collection of some of the subscriptions was resisted until the Supreme Court of Indiana declared them to be binding—the Franklin College Association assumed the debts of the old organization, amounting to about \$13,000, and by foreclosing an old mortgage against the former board and purchasing the property at sheriff's sale, secured title to the campus and the buildings of the college.

In the fall of 1872 Franklin College was again opened, and never since has there been any doubt of its being established upon a firm basis. The resources have steadily increased, buildings have been added to the equipment, and the endowment has grown until now the college has \$250,000 invested in safe securities. The total enrolment in the strictly collegiate departments numbers one hundred and sixty.

The Franklin College Association is therefore entitled to the affectionate recollection of all interested in Franklin College. The association took the college when it was closed, and, opening it for the reception of students, carried it along in constantly

increasing strength and usefulness until the college arrived at the position it occupies to-day. But the government of an institution by stockholders is subject to many inconveniences, especially when most of the original subscribers are dead and their heirs are too widely scattered to assemble at the annual meetings. The appreciation of these inconveniences had been growing for some time among the friends of the college, and in 1907 steps were taken to introduce the form of government usual in American colleges and universities. Waivers were secured from the original subscribers or their heirs, and on October 21, 1907, the former association was dissolved, and a new corporation created to govern Franklin College, by which the control of the college was vested in a board of directors of twenty-four members, one third of whom should retire each year. All members were to be elected by the board itself, and no denomination requirement or restriction was placed upon the free choice of the directors.

In March, 1908, the authorities of Franklin College forwarded to the Carnegie Foundation a certified copy of this new charter, and also a copy of a resolution adopted by the board of directors, on the third of that month, that in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers no denominational test is imposed, etc. The educational standard of the college, and the amount of its endowment also, satisfying the requirements of the Foundation, Franklin College was on June 4, 1908, admitted to all the privileges of the Foundation.

#### UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

The design for an institution of higher learning at Cincinnati is over a hundred years old, for in 1807 the legislature of Ohio passed an act incorporating the Cincinnati University. The project did not get beyond the incorporation, however, and was soon forgotten. Cincinnati was then a frontier village.

Seven years later there was organized the Cincinnati-Lancaster Seminary. In 1820 this seminary was merged with Cincinnati College, incorporated the preceding year, and for several years the consolidated institution was prosperous and seemed assured of a future; but in 1825 its finances became disordered and the sessions were suspended. Ten years later Cincinnati College reopened, with a college of liberal arts, a school of medicine, and a school of law. The law school was the continuation of a private law school founded by some eminent practitioners in 1833, being the first school of law west of the Alleghenies, and only preceded in the United States by the legal departments of Harvard, Yale, and the University of Virginia. The school of medicine was likewise the continuation of another institution, the Medical College of Ohio having been chartered in 1819 and opened for instruction in the following year. It is the oldest medical school in the west.

Cincinnati College, in this second period of activity, lasted only ten years. In 1845 the building in which the academic sessions were held was destroyed, and with the exception of the school of law, classes were discontinued. The establishment of



higher education in Cincinnati upon a permanent basis was finally due to the munificence of Charles McMicken, one of the pioneer merchants of the city. Mr. McMicken was born in Pennsylvania during the revolutionary war, and as early as 1803 was a flatboat trader along the Ohio, with his headquarters in the rude outpost of civilization opposite the mouth of the Licking. As this small town grew into a great city, and the Ohio became a great highway of commerce, Mr. McMicken's wealth increased, and when he died, in 1858, his estate exceeded a million dollars. By his will Mr. McMicken bequeathed the greater part of this property to the city of Cincinnati, to found "an institution where white boys and girls might . . . receive the benefit of a sound, thorough, and practical English education, and such as might fit them for the active duties of life, as well as instruction in all the higher branches of knowledge, except denominational theology." Half of this bequest, consisting of real estate in Louisiana, could not be devoted to the testator's object, as the Supreme Court of Louisiana decided that realty in that state was incapable of being bequeathed to a foreign corporation. The remainder of the property being insufficient to establish an institution of higher education, it was allowed to accumulate for about ten years.

In 1870 the city council of Cincinnati endeavored, under authority of an act passed by the legislature of Ohio, to consolidate the various educational trusts in the city, principally the Cincinnati College, the McMicken fund, and the Astronomical Society, into a University of Cincinnati. It was thought that if all of these trusts were united the income would be sufficient to furnish a university of broad type. The project could not be carried out in its entirety at that time, but the trustees of the McMicken fund turned over their property to the board of directors appointed by the city, and steps to furnish instruction in the higher education were immediately taken. The board began the erection of a building with the proceeds of a bond issue authorized by the city, and not waiting for the building's completion, college classes were opened in 1873 in the Woodward High School. The first instructors were drawn from the high school staff. In 1875 the first university building, on the site of the McMicken homestead, was ready for the new institution, and in 1877 one student was graduated. The next year there were eight graduates, and the student body has gradually increased until now there are over seven hundred students receiving instruction in the McMicken College of Liberal Arts, while nearly two hundred students are enrolled in the College of Engineering, which was made an independent college of the university in 1904.

In 1887 the university attached to itself the Clinical and Pathological School organized that year by the medical staff of the Cincinnati Hospital. In 1896 the Ohio Medical College was affiliated, the Clinical and Pathological School becoming an auxiliary department. Since then both the Ohio Medical College and the school have been absorbed as integral parts of the university. In 1907 the Miami Medical College of Cincinnati, founded in 1852, became amalgamated with the college of medicine of



the university. Funds have been provided for chairs whose occupants will devote all of their time and attention to teaching, and in conjunction with the new Public Hospital of Cincinnati, largely under the direction of the medical faculty of the university, modern instruction in medicine is offered commensurate with the importance of such a city as Cincinnati.

The University Law School, organized by a number of the younger members of the Cincinnati bar, began to give instruction in 1896. In the following year a union was effected between it and the Law School of the Cincinnati College, mentioned before as having been organized in 1833. The school became the College of Law of the University of Cincinnati, although it retains the old charter granted to Cincinnati College in 1819, and the title to its property is still vested in the board of trustees acting under that charter. The alumni of the Cincinnati Law School, which is thus the oldest portion of the University of Cincinnati, comprises many of the eminent lawyers who have been distinguished at the bar of the middle west during the last three quarters of a century, while the list of the professors of law includes such well-known jurists as Governors George Hoadley and Jacob D. Cox, Judson Harmon, Attorney-General under President Cleveland, Alphonso Taft, Attorney-General under President Grant, and his son, William H. Taft, Secretary of War under President Roosevelt. Judge Taft, while he sat on the United States circuit court bench at Cincinnati, acted as dean of the school.

One of the most valued of the components of the university is the astronomical observatory. The Cincinnati Astronomical Society was organized in 1842 under the leadership of Ormsby McKnight Mitchel, then a professor in Cincinnati College, and immediately began to plan an observatory. The corner-stone of this was laid in 1843 by John Quincy Adams. When the university was established, the Astronomical Society desired to transfer the observatory to it, and after the city had made provision for the perpetual support of the observatory by a special tax, the transfer was effected in 1872. Professor Cleveland Abbe, first director of the observatory after its connection with the university, began issuing, with the coöperation of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, a series of bulletins of weather conditions for the benefit of the mariners of the Great Lakes, the first of the kind ever issued in this country. These bulletins lead directly to the establishment of the United States Weather Bureau, with which Professor Abbe has been connected as professor of meteorology since its foundation. The observatory buildings, with the new telescope, are located on Mount Lookout, the highest elevation around Cincinnati.

Within ten years after the building on the old McMicken homestead was occupied, it became apparent that the accommodations of the university were inadequate, and in 1889 the city council set aside forty-three acres in Burnet Woods as an enlarged site. In 1904 a beginning was made toward the permanent housing of the university on this site when the council appropriated \$100,000 for the erection of McMicken Hall. The private generosity of several citizens of Cincinnati has made this the cen-

tre of a group of buildings. Until 1893 the income was derived from the fees of students and from endowment, but in that year the city council began to levy a special tax for the university. In 1893 this tax amounted to \$37,000, with \$6000 additional for the observatory. It has steadily augmented since, until during the fiscal year of 1907, including a special appropriation by the board of education to the College for Teachers, the university received from the city \$139,000. In 1908 the university was added to the list of purposes for which the city might bond itself, from which list it had been omitted on a previous revision of the municipal code, and steps are now being taken to provide an issue of bonds so that new buildings may be added to the university's equipment.

Since its establishment in 1870 the university has had several changes of government, the board of trustees being in the beginning elected by the city council, and later appointed by those judges of the highest state court who hold terms in Cincinnati. The supreme control of the university is at present vested in a board of directors, consisting of nine members, appointed for a term of six years by the mayor of Cincinnati.

Within a short time after the establishment of the Carnegie Foundation President Dabney of the University of Cincinnati directed the attention of the Foundation to the unique position of the university among tax-supported institutions, in that it had been founded by private benefaction, had received large gifts subsequently from individuals, and had a considerable income at present as the result of the original endowment and private additions thereto. The Foundation thought that the case of the University of Cincinnati might well await the final decision in regard to all tax-supported institutions, and therefore the application was not definitely acted upon by the executive committee. Mr. Carnegie's enlargement of the endowment of the Foundation on March 31, 1908, made it unnecessary to consider whether the status of the University of Cincinnati was different from that of the state universities, and on June 4 the president of the Foundation informed President Dabney that the executive committee had voted to admit the University of Cincinnati whenever the application of the board of directors was approved by the mayor of Cincinnati and the city council. In a letter which followed, the president of the Foundation said: "The executive committee felt that in the case of a municipal university, it is only fair that such an institution should observe the same restrictions which Mr. Carnegie had placed upon institutions supported by the taxation of a state, in order that it might be clearly understood that he has not sought to offer retiring allowances through this Foundation except with the consent of the community, or its representatives, which supports the institution."

On June 22, 1908, the Honorable Leopold Markbreit, mayor of Cincinnati, approved a resolution of the council of the city, "that the council of Cincinnati cordially approves the application of the president and board of directors of the University of Cincinnati of date of the seventeenth of May, nineteen hundred and seven,

for admission to the accepted list of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching." This resolution, with the approval of the mayor, having been formally certified to the Foundation by the clerk of the city, the executive committee, on July 2, formally admitted the University of Cincinnati to full participation in the privileges of the Foundation.

#### LIST OF INSTITUTIONS ON THE ACCEPTED LIST WITH DATA CONCERNING THEIR ACADEMIC AND FINANCIAL STATUS

It is the belief of the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation that colleges and universities have everything to gain by a frank statement to the public concerning their academic and financial administrations. The trustees believe also that an institution which receives so valuable an endowment as is contained in the establishment in it of an effective system of retiring allowances, will naturally expect to furnish complete information to the Foundation in matters of its administration. The following table gives for the colleges of the accepted list such data. The figures for the average salary of full professors are exclusive of the salaries in professional departments.



**INSTITUTIONS ON THE ACCEPTED LIST**

# DATA CONCERNING INSTITUTIONS

	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for last Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
AMHERST COLLEGE Amherst, Massachusetts .....	1825	31	38	\$139,857	\$.....	\$2,882	14	515	4			
BATES COLLEGE Lewiston, Maine .....	1864	11	18	47,525	66,982	1,480	14	438	4			
BELOIT COLLEGE Beloit, Wisconsin .....	1846	20	33	76,711	26,022	1,657	14.9	303	4			
BOWDOIN COLLEGE Brunswick, Maine.....	1794	31	49	98,086	243,062	2,119	14	303	4			
CARLETON COLLEGE Northfield, Minnesota.....	1866	11	21	44,437	.....	1,290	14	299	4			
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE Cleveland, Ohio .....	1880	18	35	145,543	.....	2,845	14	440	4			
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Danville, Kentucky.....	1819	66	96	32,445	.....	1,633	14	150	4			
CLARK UNIVERSITY Worcester, Massachusetts .....	1889	25	38	145,950	.....	2,659	14	191	3			
CLARKSON SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY Potsdam, New York.....	1896	8	12	21,941	.....	1,335	14.4	97	4			
COLORADO COLLEGE Colorado Springs, Colorado.....	1874	22	44	54,625	436,542	1,666	15	396	4			
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY New York City.....	1754	219	496	1,858,171	1,077,934	4,182	14.5	2463 <sup>1</sup>	4			
CORNELL UNIVERSITY Ithaca, New York .....	1865	172	488	1,356,499	233,486	3,006	15	2707	4			
DALHOUSIE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY Halifax, Nova Scotia.....	1821	12	63	34,907	5,737	2,044	.....	281	4			
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE Hanover, New Hampshire .....	1769	61	87	270,000	35,722	2,478	14.5	1183	4			
DICKINSON COLLEGE Carlisle, Pennsylvania .....	1783	23	26	62,076	14,375	1,650	14	314	4			
DRAKE UNIVERSITY Des Moines, Iowa.....	1881	24	99	112,256	.....	1,444	15	516	4	Col- lege De- gree	54	3
DRURY COLLEGE Springfield, Missouri.....	1873	14	17	28,524	.....	1,411	15	138	4			
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA Franklin, Indiana .....	1835	10	14	23,806	36,492	1,175	14	225	4			
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Washington, D. C.....	1821	110	152	154,176	25,322	2,066	14.5	595	4			
HAMILTON COLLEGE Clinton, New York.....	1812	18	19	49,425	20,000	1,896	14	178	4			
HARVARD UNIVERSITY Cambridge, Massachusetts.....	1650	183	576	1,783,130	714,215	4,642	16	2805	3,3 $\frac{1}{4}$ , 4	Col- lege De- gree	31	3

<sup>1</sup> Including 850 in Teachers' College.

# ON THE ACCEPTED LIST

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 14 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
																			502
																			436
															3				303
15	93	4													2				371
												2	225		5				287
															12				440
10	375	4	2 yrs. H. S.	145	3				H. S.	23	2				9				162
															76				191
																			96
													75	4	10		Forestry 11		241
15 <sup>4</sup>	314	4				12 <sup>5</sup>	230	3	3 yrs. Coll.	249	3	11.5	22	2 <sup>3</sup>	897	3085	1392	Arch. 122	3281
3 yrs. Coll.	316	4							15	206	3				249		841	Agric. 618 Vet. Sc. 82 Arch. 100	3354
	67	5	Organized 1908	4						54	3		4	3					364
10.4	58	4															86	Adm. and Finance 44	1171
									11	94	3								298
15	68	4							14.4	130	3		402	4			356	Commerce 107	840
													161	4	1			Art 18	96
													75	6					210
14	198	4	14.5	52	3	1 yr. H. S.	61	3	14.5	328	3				94			Arch. 48	1001
																			175
Col- lege De- gree	345	4	14	68	3				Col- lege De- gree	716	3				400	104	1126	Agric. 22	3578

<sup>3</sup> No specific requirements stated.

<sup>3</sup> For certificate of proficiency.

<sup>4</sup> In 1910-1911 two years college work will be required.

<sup>5</sup> The course leading to the degree of Graduate in Pharmacy (conferred by College of Pharmacy independently of Columbia University) has 3 units entrance requirement.



# DATA CONCERNING INSTITUTIONS

	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for last Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
HOBART COLLEGE Geneva, New York.....	1822	13	16	\$ 56,641 <sup>1</sup>	\$.....	\$1,675	14.4	106	4	.....	.....	.....
IOWA COLLEGE Grinnell, Iowa.....	1847	22	31	74,285	16,772	1,458	14	466	4	.....	.....	.....
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY Baltimore, Maryland.....	1867	79	168	327,787	761,000	3,674	15	336	4	.....	.....	.....
KNOX COLLEGE Galesburg, Illinois.....	1837	11	21	48,169	.....	1,586	14	280	4	.....	.....	.....
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY Appleton, Wisconsin.....	1847	20	38	42,412	99,800	1,450	14	346	4	.....	.....	.....
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY South Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.....	1866	28	63	158,301	5,060	2,630	14.5	698	4	.....	.....	.....
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY Stanford University, California.....	1885	104	218	854,812	.....	3,877	15	1612	4	.....	.....	.....
MCGILL UNIVERSITY Montreal, Quebec.....	1821	94	250	603,599	2,130,866	2,733	.....	901	4	.....	.....	.....
MARIETTA COLLEGE Marietta, Ohio.....	1835	12	20	21,986	13,335	1,616	15	129	4	.....	.....	.....
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Boston, Massachusetts.....	1861	92	204	505,167	92,332	3,358	14	1410	4	.....	.....	.....
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE Middlebury, Vermont.....	1800	10	12	29,300	1,876	1,920	14	203	4	.....	.....	.....
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE South Hadley, Massachusetts.....	1836	37	90	.....	11,059	1,438	14	711	4	.....	.....	.....
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY New York City.....	1831	101	241	316,539	41,882	3,663	15.5	636	4	.....	.....	.....
OBERLIN COLLEGE Oberlin, Ohio.....	1833	47	93	229,460	168,742	1,856	14 <sup>2</sup>	818	4	Col- lege De- gree	53	3
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Brooklyn, New York.....	1854	15	38	120,187	50,999	2,610	14.5	252	4	.....	.....	.....
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY Princeton, New Jersey.....	1746	127	164	411,910	1,004,271	3,404	15.8	1301	4	.....	.....	.....
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE Cambridge, Massachusetts.....	1879	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	420	4	.....	.....	.....
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE Lynchburg, Virginia.....	1890	17	35	.....	.....	1,600	14.5	390	4	.....	.....	.....
RIPON COLLEGE Ripon, Wisconsin.....	1850	16	23	41,179	11,081	1,250	14	206	4	.....	.....	.....
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Terre Haute, Indiana.....	1874	12	23	42,934	.....	2,535	15	229	4	.....	.....	.....
SMITH COLLEGE Northampton, Massachusetts.....	1871	47	95	.....	23,163	2,150	14.5	1473	4	.....	.....	.....

<sup>1</sup> For fiscal year of fifteen months, owing to change of date.

<sup>2</sup> Estimated on academy course.

# ON THE ACCEPTED LIST (CONTINUED)

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 14 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
															1				90
												141			3				390
College Degree	347	4													171				590
												3	326						243
												14	57	4	13			Commerce 52 Fine Arts 31 Expression 44	345
																4			690
									15	26	3				100		13		1551
	323	5		12	4					37	3		299	3				230	1124
												3	126		4		104	Art 20	126
															20				902
																			203
																			710
12	502	4							12.6	812	2-3				281		630	1719	1038
												14	564	4			142	Art 58	1070
															64	563 <sup>5</sup>			548
															113				1245
																			342
												4			3				6
												14	48	4	2			Art 23	200
																			229
															9				1473

<sup>3</sup> No specific requirements stated.

<sup>4</sup> Data not given.

<sup>5</sup> Teachers' course at Institute.

<sup>6</sup> Specials not separated from candidates for degree.

# DATA CONCERNING INSTITUTIONS

	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for last Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Hoboken, New Jersey .....	1870	17	42	\$115,509	\$.....	\$3,127	14	435	4	.....	.....	.....
TRINITY COLLEGE Hartford, Connecticut .....	1823	18	23	53,648	14,716	2,078	14	214	4	.....	.....	.....
TUFTS COLLEGE Tufts College, Massachusetts.....	1850	65	204	177,953	42,511	1,870	14.6	452	4	14.6	11	3-6
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA New Orleans, Louisiana.....	1845	88	160	294,488	5,587	2,709	14.4	541	4	.....	.....	.....
UNION COLLEGE Schenectady, New York .....	1795	21	35	80,325	26,317	2,215	14.3	278	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI Cincinnati, Ohio .....	1870	65	122	248,986	100,000	2,981	15	981	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA Philadelphia, Pennsylvania .....	1740	136	431	752,913	275,745	3,178	14.5	1302	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania .....	1787	62	149	166,365	14,000	1,718	15	252	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER Rochester, New York.....	1851	17	24	64,775	18,922	1,971	14	373	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT Burlington, Vermont .....	1791	59	80	100,889	.....	1,964	14.5	259	4	.....	.....	.....
VASSAR COLLEGE Poughkeepsie, New York.....	1861	26	81	.....	.....	2,915	14.5	1002	4	.....	.....	.....
WABASH COLLEGE Crawfordsville, Indiana.....	1834	15	23	47,466	22,861	1,558	14	312	4	.....	.....	.....
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE Washington, Pennsylvania .....	1802	15	17	46,467	8,601	1,800	14	223	4	.....	.....	.....
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Saint Louis, Missouri.....	1853	83	177	449,797	244,811	2,638	14.5	331	4	.....	.....	.....
WELLESLEY COLLEGE Wellesley, Massachusetts.....	1870	50	120	244,663	6,407	1,927	14.5	1209	4	.....	.....	.....
WELLS COLLEGE Aurora, New York .....	1868	18	27	.....	28,000	1,450	14.5	169	4	.....	.....	.....
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY Cleveland, Ohio .....	1826	78	193	196,555	273,253	2,700	15	566	4	.....	.....	.....
WILLIAMS COLLEGE Williamstown, Massachusetts .....	1793	34	56	162,947	12,212	2,815	14.5	494	4	.....	.....	.....
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Worcester, Massachusetts.....	1865	19	46	98,528	.....	2,500	14	465	4	.....	.....	.....
YALE UNIVERSITY New Haven, Connecticut.....	1701	154	311	1,055,907	964,998	3,849	14.5	3202	4	Col- lege De- gree	96	3



# ON THE ACCEPTED LIST (CONTINUED)

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 14 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
																			435
																			204
6	367	4	6	251	3										10				427
14.4	535	4				14.4	21	2	14.4	60	3				63	298	860	Art 91 Arch. 19	1103
															7				278
8	118	4							14	33	3				86			Cin. Hosp. 113 Teachers 151	670
14.5 <sup>3</sup>	605	4	12	390	3				14.5	303	3	<sup>1</sup>	42	4	350		362	1311	2826
12	359	4	8	131	3	4	209	2	12	105	3				16		41		242
																			318
11.4	152	4																Agric. 34 Commerce 49	331
															7				993
															3				250
															5		66		223
14 <sup>4</sup>	221	4	<sup>4</sup> yrs. H. S.	104	3				<sup>4</sup> yrs. H. S.	101	3							Fine Arts 343	674
															25				1201
												<sup>1</sup>		<sup>2</sup>					169
<sup>3</sup> yrs. Col- lege	102	4	8	75	3				14	133	3				20			Library Sch. 51	762
																			467
															20				465
<sup>2</sup> yrs. Col- lege	137	4							<sup>2</sup> yrs. Col- lege	510	3-5	<sup>1</sup>	83	2	357			Forestry 93 Fine Arts 39	3237

<sup>1</sup> No specific requirements stated.

<sup>2</sup> Data not given.

<sup>3</sup> In 1909 one year of college work; in 1910-1911<sup>4</sup> two years of college work.

<sup>4</sup> In 1910-1911 one year of college work.

## EXCHANGE OF TEACHERS BETWEEN PRUSSIA AND THE UNITED STATES

IN response to a request from the Minister of Instruction of Prussia the trustees voted at their meeting on November 20, 1907, to authorize the president of the Foundation to act as the agency in America for an exchange of teachers of English between the United States and Prussia. The purpose and plan of this exchange and the terms upon which teachers are accepted were set forth in full in a pamphlet issued by the Foundation in March, 1908.

Briefly stated, the plan contemplated an exchange under which a number of *gymnasium* teachers would come to the United States for a year and a similar number of college or high school teachers would go to Prussia. The American teacher was to give informal instruction in English for two hours a day to students who were prepared to receive such instruction. In no case was the instructor, whether in America or in Prussia, to take the place of a regular teacher. The instruction given by these teachers is intended to be supplementary to that ordinarily given and of a different sort. Such a teacher would talk with his pupils about affairs in his own country, the school regulations and methods of instruction, the ideals and customs of the people, and other matters of interest. While the work of the teacher is that of teaching in this informal conversational way his own language, he need not be necessarily a teacher of language in his own school. All that is asked is scholarly fitness to do the work well.

It was expected that a much wider purpose would be served than that of instruction alone. A *gymnasium* teacher serving for a year as a member of the teaching staff of a college or a high school in this country would not only gain new ideas in education, but would also communicate to his American associates fresh conceptions of the teacher's work. Similarly, it is scarcely possible that an alert American teacher could spend a semester or a year in a good Prussian *gymnasium* without returning to his work greatly strengthened by the experience.

It was in view of these advantages to be gained for teachers that the exchange was deemed to be justified, and the expense involved, both on the part of the teacher and of the schools, was believed to be a good investment. Prussian teachers who come to the United States receive from their government leave of absence with pay and the expense of travel. They receive from the college or high school in America to which they may be accredited a modest sum for board, usually \$50 a month, a total of \$200 or \$400 according as the length of service is a half year or an entire year.

There is no provision for paying the expenses of the American teacher or his salary, and the undertaking rests on the assumption that the opportunity to spend one or two semesters in a good German *gymnasium* will so commend itself to teachers in America that they will be willing to make some sacrifice to obtain it, and that at the same time those in control of undergraduate colleges and high schools will have

sufficient appreciation of the benefits to be obtained from the exchange to grant at least leave of absence with pay to the teacher who wishes to undertake this service. The American teacher receives from the Prussian government a sum considered sufficient to pay the cost of modest living expenses.

The exchange which has been arranged for the present year has been on the basis indicated above, the Prussian teacher who comes to America receiving his pay and cost of travel from his own government and the sum of \$50 a month for lodgings from the college to which he is sent; the American teacher receiving leave of absence with pay from his institution, paying his own traveling expenses and receiving from the Prussian government a stipend for the payment of board and lodgings.

The following Prussian teachers have been assigned under the plan of exchange to American schools:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Gymnasium from which he comes</i>	<i>Subject in which he is a teacher</i>	<i>Assignment in this country</i>
CONRADIN BRINKMANN	Teglitz	<i>History, French English, Latin</i>	Yale University New Haven, Connecticut
JOHANNES ADLER	Konitz	<i>French, English German</i>	Boston High School Boston, Massachusetts
FRIEDRICH ABEE	Cassel	<i>French, English Latin</i>	Horace Mann School New York, New York
HEINRICH BEISENHERZ	Bielefeld	<i>German, French English</i>	Clark College Worcester, Massachusetts
HERMANN SCHUMACHER	Cologne	<i>Pure and Applied Mathematics and Physics</i>	Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston
OTTO MEIERFELD	Danzig	<i>English, French Geology</i>	Phillips Exeter Academy Exeter, New Hampshire
LUDWIG TOCKHARDT	Danzig	<i>French, English History</i>	University High School University of Chicago Chicago, Illinois

The following American teachers have been accredited to the Prussian schools:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Gymnasium in Prussia</i>
HOWARD W. CHURCH	Yale University	<i>German</i>	Oberrealschule, Bochum
HERMANN C. HENDERSON	State Normal School Milwaukee, Wisconsin	<i>Pedagogy, Psychology, History of Education</i>	Realgymnasium, Stralsund
FREDERICK D. GREEN	Detroit University School	<i>Latin, Greek, German, History, English</i>	Oberrealschule auf der burg Königsberg
FREDERICK W. OSWALD	University of Wisconsin	<i>German</i>	Gymnasium, Kiel
HARRY B. SMITH	Superintendent of Schools Waterloo, New York	<i>Physics, German Mathematics</i>	Realgymnasium, Altona Hamburg



<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Gymnasium in Prussia</i>
WILLIAM A. AVERILL	High School Charleston, Illinois	<i>Algebra, Geometry Physiography</i>	Realgymnasium, Cassel
LYMAN G. SMITH	High School of Commerce Boston, Massachusetts	<i>Chemistry, Physics</i>	Realgymnasium, Harburg Hamburg
JAMES A. CAMPBELL	University of Kansas	<i>German</i>	Sachsenhäuser, Oberreal- schule Frankfurt, a/M

Although the exchange has scarcely more than begun, several matters have developed respecting it to which it seems desirable to call attention.

In Prussia a very large number of well-qualified teachers applied for the opportunity to exchange, and a large number of *gymnasias* asked for the assignment of American teachers.

In the United States a considerable number of teachers applied, nearly all of whom were from the central west. Very few applications came from New England, New York, or the Atlantic States, a result somewhat disappointing. This, however, was not so disconcerting as the lack of high schools or undergraduate colleges desiring to take, at the small expense involved, a German teacher. This arose, I am inclined to believe, from a misconception of the plan itself. Many American schools have found unsatisfactory results from the employment of foreign teachers of language and did not appreciate the fact that this plan involved a totally different thing from the employment of an ordinary teacher of elementary German. No one can deny that the teaching of German and French in many of our colleges and high schools is to-day of the most lifeless and superficial sort. This exchange does not furnish the American college or high school a teacher to take the place of a routine teacher of German, but it does furnish the opportunity to freshen and vivify the whole teaching of modern language, and in addition gives the great advantage of a comparison of methods of teaching with those of the Prussian *gymnasium*, where to-day are doubtless to be found the best teachers and the best teaching in any schools in the world. I hope that the realization of this opportunity—which in my judgment means even more for the American school than for the American teacher—will bring in the coming year a larger number of offers from the colleges and high schools to utilize the services of Prussian teachers.

The trustees may have noted that the inauguration of this exchange precipitated in English and German periodicals an amusing discussion as to whether Americans ought to be chosen to teach the English language. The fitness of Americans to teach English was warmly defended by Professor Brandl and other German university professors who had visited the United States.

The next assignment of teachers to Prussia will be made in June, 1909, for the semester beginning with the first of October following. Teachers who desire to take part in this exchange, and the head of any undergraduate college or high school who desires to secure the services of one of the Prussian teachers for the year 1909-10, or

for the half of that year, are asked to correspond with the president of the Foundation at as early a date as possible.

I am indebted to the following American scholars who kindly served on a committee to consider the applications of American teachers:

Dr. Calvin Thomas, Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures, Columbia University.

Dr. Julius Sachs, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Mr. James G. Croswell, Head-master of the Brearley School, New York City.

## THE COST OF MAINTAINING A RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN A COLLEGE

THE trustees and officers of the Carnegie Foundation have naturally sought to estimate as closely as possible the cost involved in maintaining a retiring allowance system in a college having a given number of professors. It is, however, difficult to make any accurate estimate until a longer experience has given some more definite knowledge of certain factors involved in the problem.

In making such a determination three sets of factors enter: first, the conditions of the retiring allowance system; second, the vital probabilities involved in the lives of persons on the retired list; third, the methods adopted by the various institutions in retiring professors.

The first two sets of factors are definite enough. The Carnegie Foundation pays retiring allowances based on definite rules and having a fixed relation to the active pay. One half of the retiring pay earned by a professor is paid to his widow in case of his death. The vital statistics relating to the lives of those on the retired roll are well known. The uncertainty comes in the methods which the colleges adopt in retiring their professors. At present only a few institutions make retirement at sixty-five compulsory, and even in such institutions the trustees by vote often extend the term of active service of a professor who is anxious to continue. The use of a retiring allowance system is new to most college officers and to most teachers. Consequently the average age of those retiring is considerably above the age limit set by the rules, and this notwithstanding the fact that a certain number of men have been retired on the basis of service at an age considerably below sixty-five. The average age of the one hundred and twelve professors (omitting those receiving disability allowances) from accepted institutions who have been retired since the inauguration of the Carnegie Foundation was sixty-eight at the date of their retirement. In general the tendency is for men to continue in service considerably beyond the age of sixty-five. Whether this will continue in the future it is impossible to say, but this uncertainty makes it difficult to estimate when a college with a given number of professors at given salaries has begun to throw upon the retiring allowance system its normal load. The following table, which shows the present rate of cost of the retiring allowance system in the sixty-two institutions now upon the accepted list, reveals some of the differences which have hitherto shown themselves in different institutions in the matter of retirement of professors. These differences have sprung from a variety of causes. In some institutions there were more aged men than in others when the Foundation was established. In nearly all colleges there is likely to occur at certain irregular epochs an unusual proportion of men of advanced years, a situation with which heretofore most colleges, in the absence of a retiring allowance system, have had no fair means of dealing. On the other hand, a number of the institutions are comparatively young; their professors were appointed from young men and they



have not yet grown a crop of old professors. In the main the discrepancies arise out of differences in administrative practice: in some institutions active service is terminated automatically at sixty-five and action of the executive board is required to prolong it; in most institutions no age is set for retirement and a professor can be placed on the retired list only by his own initiative or that of the authorities of the institution. The question as to when a professor shall retire is one with which the Carnegie Foundation has, of course, nothing to do. It rests entirely with the teacher and the authorities of his college.

The data here given refer to the spring of 1908, and the professors included in the lists of those in active service refer only to such as are eligible to the retiring allowance system. Teachers in professional departments of universities who give only a small part of their service to teaching and whose principal work lies outside the teacher's calling are not included.

The result shows that in the aggregate these sixty-two institutions contain some one thousand, six hundred and nineteen professors in active service and one hundred and sixteen professors on the retired list, and that the retiring allowance system is costing annually two hundred and three thousand two hundred and ninety dollars. This sum is five per cent of the active pay of all the professors in service in the sixty-two institutions. At this rate, a college whose faculty included twenty professors of all grades at an average annual salary of twenty-five hundred dollars would have an annual salary roll of fifty thousand dollars, and would expend twenty-five hundred dollars in maintaining its retiring allowance system. Whether this is a fair indication of the expense involved in the permanent maintenance of a retiring allowance system, it is difficult to say. It seems likely that the expense will ultimately be larger as colleges and teachers understand better the working of the retiring allowance system. The question has great significance in the work of the Foundation, since it affects directly the number of institutions which may be admitted. It cannot be too often repeated that the establishment of a complete and satisfactory retiring allowance system in a considerable number of representative colleges and universities is worth more to the cause of education than any arrangement under which the provision for retiring allowances is of a desultory and uncertain character.

**COST OF RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS  
ARRANGED IN ORDER OF EXPENDITURE**

INSTITUTIONS	Annual Cost of Retiring Allowance System	Salaries of Professors in Active Service	No. of Profes- sors in Active Service	No. of Pro- fessors Eligible to receive Allowances		No. of Profes- sors on Retired List	No. of Wid- ows pen- sioned
				Basis of Age	Basis of Service		
YALE UNIVERSITY .....	\$25,195	\$417,519	132	5	1	11	2
CORNELL UNIVERSITY .....	16,570	394,208	152	2	9	9	.....
HARVARD UNIVERSITY .....	16,305	625,088	164	12	16	7	2
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA .....	14,365	120,720	50	4	5	7	1
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY .....	14,055	694,475	190	2	15	5	3
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY .....	11,075	47,850	17	0	4	5	.....
AMHERST COLLEGE .....	9,050	78,100	32	0	5	4	2
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY .....	7,165	334,700	127	3	9	4	.....
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE OF BROOKLYN ....	4,850	33,100	41	0	0	3	.....
OBERLIN COLLEGE .....	4,570	95,200	53	0	1	3	1
CARLETON COLLEGE .....	4,095	17,800	12	1	2	4	.....
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY .....	4,050	20,500	11	0	2	3	.....
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY .....	3,900	80,300	31	2	2	2	.....
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER .....	3,720	33,662	17	3	2	2	.....
TUFTS COLLEGE .....	3,480	66,933	34	1	1	4	.....
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY .....	3,425	77,950	30	0	3	1	2
WELLS COLLEGE .....	3,260	27,200	19	1	0	3	.....
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY .....	3,225	94,400	41	0	0	1	1
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE ....	3,005	32,200	15	1	3	3	.....
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI .....	2,915	101,300	39	0	2	2	.....
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE .....	2,830	110,300	49	3	2	2	.....
MCGILL UNIVERSITY .....	2,825	154,400	59	0	6	1	1
BATES COLLEGE .....	2,755	17,300	11	1	0	2	1
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY ...	2,155	291,500	102	0	5	1	1
DRURY COLLEGE .....	2,065	15,200	10	0	1	2	.....
VASSAR COLLEGE .....	2,025	76,170	27	1	0	1	.....
RIPON COLLEGE .....	2,000	19,400	14	0	0	2	.....
BELOIT COLLEGE .....	2,000	34,000	21	0	1	2	.....
BOWDOIN COLLEGE .....	1,880	36,750	17	.....	.....	1	1
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE .....	1,820	49,300	20	1	2	1	.....
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE .....	1,750	18,590	10	0	1	1	.....

COST OF RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS  
ARRANGED IN ORDER OF EXPENDITURE (CONTINUED)

INSTITUTIONS	Annual Cost of Retiring Allowance System	Salaries of Professors in Active Service	No. of Profes- sors in Active Service	No. of Pro- fessors Eligible to receive Allowances		No. of Profes- sors on Retired List	No. of Wid- ows pen- sioned
				Basis of Age	Basis of Service		
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE .....	\$1,730	\$47,000	36	0	2	2	.....
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH .....	1,700	60,900	25	1	3	1	.....
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE .....	1,650	43,450	18	0	1	1	.....
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT .....	1,400	56,000	30	1	2	1	.....
HOBART COLLEGE .....	1,300	20,750	13	2	0	1	.....
DRAKE UNIVERSITY .....	1,280	36,250	24	1	1	1	.....
DALHOUSIE UNIVERSITY .....	1,260	24,220	12	1	1	1	.....
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY .....	1,200	192,983	62	3	6	.....	1
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ..	1,200	101,550	78	1	5	1	.....
TRINITY COLLEGE .....	1,200	40,300	18	1	0	1	.....
MARIETTA COLLEGE .....	1,060	16,200	12	1	1	1	.....
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE .....	1,025	26,425	14	0	1	1	.....
IOWA COLLEGE .....	1,000	32,700	22	1	1	1	.....
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA .....	970	13,000	9	0	3	1	.....
KNOX COLLEGE .....	950	18,860	11	0	2	1	.....
COLORADO COLLEGE .....	855	36,800	21	1	0	1	.....
WELLESLEY COLLEGE .....	630	84,400	51	1	2	1	.....
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY .....	500	29,800	20	0	0	.....	1
CLARK UNIVERSITY .....		62,500	25	0	2	.....	.....
CLARKSON SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY .....		13,400	9	0	0	.....	.....
DICKINSON COLLEGE .....		26,500	15	0	1	.....	.....
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY .....		60,750	28	0	2	.....	.....
HAMILTON COLLEGE .....		35,750	19	0	2	.....	.....
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY .....		170,144	50	2	2	.....	.....
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE .....				0	1	.....	.....
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE .....		28,350	12	0	4	.....	.....
SMITH COLLEGE .....				2	4	.....	.....
UNION COLLEGE .....		34,820	17	0	2	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA .....		273,250	101	.....	.....	.....	.....
WABASH COLLEGE .....		24,450	15	0	0	.....	.....
WILLIAMS COLLEGE .....		88,800	36	3	3	.....	.....



## UNIFORMITY IN FINANCIAL REPORTS

ONE of the first difficulties met in attempting to present comparative college statistics lies in the absence of uniformity in college reports. In their financial exhibits a wide variation exists. The great majority of colleges present no formal printed statement showing their resources, income, and expenditure. On the other hand, the stronger universities publish reports of their treasurers showing in great detail all items of income and expenditure. Some of these reports are so minute that it is difficult to extract from them the significant items of income and of expense in which the public, and particularly students of education, are interested. It is probably impossible, and perhaps undesirable, to undertake to secure among institutions of learning an absolutely uniform system of bookkeeping and of financial reports. Reports which have for a long time been prepared in accordance with a fixed routine could not easily be changed, and officials in charge of large endowments would probably not be willing to make changes.

I venture to suggest, however, that the matters in which the public is interested and which are needed in the study of educational administration can all be presented in simple form in an ordinary balance sheet, if only the items in the balance are made the same so that the results are comparable. The information in which the public is interested is not to be found in the minute specification of sources of income and expense, but rather in the grouping of the essential matters of income and expenditure which enter into the support and administration of an institution of learning. With regard to endowment the public desires to know how much the total is, the general method of its investment, and the amount of income available for educational purposes. With regard to income it is particularly concerned in knowing both the amount and the sources from which it comes: how much is from endowment, how much from student fees, and how much from state or denominational support. It is also interested to know whether there are any charges against this income due to interest on debts.

Similarly, there are certain fundamental and important items of expense in which the public is interested and which it would be glad to examine, if this could be done without going through pages of figures and if the results were comparable with those of other institutions.

The primary reason for the existence of a college is to teach, and the fundamental question which the public desires to know is how the income is spent with relation to teaching: how much goes into administration, what part is used in paying the salaries of teachers of various grades, what proportion goes to maintain libraries and laboratories, how much is expended in the up-keep of the physical plant, what is spent in advertising (for even the oldest and most famous of American universities feel obliged to spend a greater or less sum each year in advertising), and the cost of the pay of stenographers, janitors, and the large army of non-professional

employees which in a great organization seems so necessary and which eats up so large a share of the income. It is these more simple and fundamental items of expense which the public desires most to know and which would be of great value in educational administration, if only they were made up in the same way in all institutions so that they might safely be compared.

Institutions of learning have been most willing to coöperate with the Foundation by answering questions and filling blanks which in many cases required care and time. I venture to suggest that if the financial officers of colleges and universities will include in their reports an annual exhibit and balance made up in accordance with the following forms, it will answer most inquiries of this nature, whether from the Foundation or other source, and will further serve a real purpose by making public information from all institutions which is easily got at, trustworthy and comparable.

A word may be said as to the most convenient date for the beginning of the college fiscal year. An examination into the treasurers' reports of one hundred institutions, these being largely the institutions on the accepted list and the state universities, shows that the fiscal year beginning with July 1 most frequently occurs; thirty-six out of the hundred count the fiscal year from July 1 to June 30. The following tabulation gives the exact variation:

January 1 to December	30- 7	July	15 to July	14-1
April 1 to March	31- 1	August	1 to July	31-9
April 15 to April	14- 1	August	15 to August	14-1
May 1 to April	30- 6	September	1 to August	31-6
May 10 to May	9- 1	October	1 to September	30-5
June 1 to May	31-21	November	1 to October	31-1
June 10 to June	9- 1	November	15 to November	14-1
June 15 to June	14- 1	December	1 to November	30-1
July 1 to June	30-36			

On the Pacific coast certain seasonal and industrial conditions operate to place the beginning of the college year at a different date from that commonly in use throughout the United States, the year at Berkeley and Stanford beginning late in August. Strict uniformity in this respect is probably attainable, although not of very great importance. It would seem from the data given above, that institutions generally could make the fiscal year begin July 1 without serious inconvenience.

The following exhibit sheets for the income-bearing resources and income accounts and for the various expense accounts are here given as further suggestions toward uniformity in financial reports. Such forms will, of course, need to be adjusted to the needs of each institution, but, as stated above, some such simple device will give readily the items in which the public is usually interested, and, if generally adopted, will lead the administrators of colleges and universities to a more careful study of the financial administration of their own institutions in comparison with that of other institutions. These blanks may be had by application to the Carnegie Foundation.

Exhibit I

INCOME-PRODUCING RESOURCES AT END OF FISCAL YEAR ENDING.....19....

(a) Real Estate, productive, assessed value *	.....
(b) Mortgages on real estate	.....
(c) Bonds, cost value	.....
(d) Stocks, cost value	.....
(e) Notes, cost value	.....
(f) Cash in Banks and Trust Companies	.....

Exhibit II

INCOME ACCOUNT FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING.....19....

1. FROM ENDOWMENT	
(a) Income from real estate, less taxes	.....
(b) Income from mortgages	.....
(c) Income from bonds	.....
(d) Income from stocks	.....
(e) Income from notes	.....
(f) Income from funds in banks and trust companies	.....
2. FROM REGULAR TUITIONS	
(a) Graduate College	.....
(b) Undergraduate College	.....
(c) School of Applied Science	.....
(d) School of Agriculture	.....
(e) Theological School	.....
(f) School of Medicine	.....
(g) School of Dentistry	.....
(h) School of Pharmacy	.....
(i) School of Law	.....
(j) Normal Course	.....
(k) Commercial Course	.....
(l) School of Music	.....
3. FROM STUDENT FEES FOR LIBRARIES, LABORATORIES, DEGREES, ETC.	
(a) Graduate College	.....
(b) Undergraduate College	.....
(c) School of Applied Science	.....
(d) School of Agriculture	.....
etc.	.....

\* Real estate used for campus, purposes of instruction, or for dormitories is not included.



## EXHIBIT II (continued)

4. NET INCOME FROM DORMITORIES	.....
5. FROM SALE OF SUPPLIES, CHEMICALS, LABORATORY MATERIALS, ETC.*	.....
6. NET INCOME FROM DINING HALLS	.....
7. FROM FIXED TAXATION	.....
8. FROM DIRECT APPROPRIATION OF LEGISLATURE	.....
9. FROM GIFTS OF INDIVIDUALS FOR CURRENT EXPENSES	.....
Total Income for Current Use for Year ending.....19.....	.....
Interest on Debt for same Year	.....
NET INCOME AVAILABLE	.....

## Exhibit III

## EXPENSE ACCOUNT FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING.....19.....

1. ADMINISTRATION	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(a) Salaries of permanent officers who are not teachers†	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(b) Salaries of stenographers and assistants	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(c) Expense of administrative offices, furniture, postage, etc.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
2. TEACHING ‡	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(a) Undistributed	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(b) Graduate College	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(c) Undergraduate College	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(d) School of Applied Science	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(e) School of Agriculture	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(f) Theological School	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(g) School of Medicine	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(h) School of Dentistry	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
(Each department in detail)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

\* Exclusive of student fees for laboratories.

† When an executive officer teaches part time charge proportional part of the expense to teaching.

‡ When an officer has a house include estimated rental in reckoning his salary.

## EXHIBIT III (continued)

3. ACCESSORIES TO TEACHING			
(a) Pay of librarians	.....		
(b) Pay of clerks	.....		
(c) Pay of stenographers	.....		
(d) Pay of mechanics	.....		
(e) Pay of laborers	.....		
4. PUBLICATION EXPENSES			
5. APPROPRIATIONS FOR CURRENT PURCHASES*			
(a) For Library	.....		
(b) For Department of English	.....		
(c) For Department of Mathematics	.....		
<i>(Each department in detail)</i>	.....		
6. MAINTENANCE OF PHYSICAL PLANT			
(a) Pay of janitor, engineers, laborers, carpenters, etc.	.....		
(b) Cost of annual repairs	.....		
(c) Special and unusual repairs	.....		
(d) Fuel, lighting, and heating	.....		
7. EXPENSE OF ENTERTAINMENTS, PUBLIC FUNCTIONS, ETC.			
8. EXPENSE FOR TRAVELING AND DELEGATES			
9. EXPENSE OF PRIZES AND SCHOLARSHIPS			
10. INSURANCE			
11. ADVERTISING			
12. DEPRECIATIONS			
13. MISCELLANEOUS EXPENSES			
TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR YEAR			

\* Departmental appropriations are intended to cover the annual sum given to different departments for purchase of books, apparatus, thesis work, laboratory supplies, etc.

## TEACHERS' INSURANCE

MANY inquiries reach the executive officers of the Foundation as to the possibility of extending the benefits of the retiring allowance system so as to secure to teachers at least small retiring allowances after ten, fifteen, or twenty years of service. Some pathetic cases have arisen in which professors have died after a service of twenty years, leaving widows in destitute circumstances who under the rules as they now stand have no claim to a pension. It is to be noted that such a claim only accrues when the husband at the time of his death has earned by his service the right to a retiring salary.

In answer to such inquiries it may be said that wherever the limit is placed those whose cases do not fall within the limit assigned will have a similar reason for dissatisfaction. The only course open in the administration of the Foundation is to administer impartially the rules agreed upon. Whether the resources of the Foundation will allow later some further extension of provisions cannot at this moment be decided. That matter must await the experience of the next few years in order to ascertain what the practice of teachers in availing themselves of retiring allowances will be; this will determine the cost of the retiring allowance system and ultimately will fix the limit to which its benefits may be extended.

The cases which have come to the attention of the executive committee seem, however, to indicate that among teachers there is a very general neglect of the ordinary precautions with regard to life insurance. In some cases teachers are unable to secure insurance on account of physical disabilities; but even in the case of healthy men comparatively few carry insurance in proportion to their income.

I venture to call attention to the fact that a teacher who has in anticipation the benefits of a pension system for himself and his wife at the end of twenty or twenty-five years may secure additional straight life insurance for this interval at lower rates than ordinary life policies, and can then afford to drop it, once he has earned the right to a retiring allowance, if its longer maintenance is a burden. The life insurance companies offer such limited insurance in two forms, term insurance and yearly renewable insurance. Under the first a man may insure for a definite limited term, as 10 or 20 years. The difference in expense between such limited insurance and the ordinary life policy is indicated below. The premiums are in each case for \$1000 of insurance.

<i>Age</i>	<i>Annual Premium on 20 Year Term Policy</i>	<i>Annual Premium on Ordinary Life Policy</i>
30	\$14.11	\$24.38
35	16.24	28.11
40	19.76	33.01
45	25.52	39.55
50	34.73	48.48
55	48.71	60.72
60	68.63	77.69

These figures will vary slightly in the different companies.



The other form of insurance is known as the yearly renewable term policy, offered by a few companies only. Under this policy a man who insures at the age of 30, for example, pays a premium of \$12.59 for one year's insurance. At the expiration of that year he has the option, within thirty days of the anniversary of the policy, to renew the contract by paying the premium as for age 31, amounting to \$12.77. This privilege of renewal continues under the terms of the policy at the increasing rate corresponding to the age of the insured until the age of 64 is reached. After that age the policy must terminate, or the insured may exchange his policy for the ordinary life contract at the age of 65 and pay premium as of age 65. The cost per thousand of insurance in such a renewable policy is as follows:

<i>Age</i>	<i>Annual Premium Yearly Renewable Policy</i>	<i>Value of the Net Life Risk (American Mortality Tables)</i>
30	\$12.59	\$ 8.14
35	13.65	8.65
40	15.22	9.46
45	17.59	10.79
50	21.67	13.31
55	28.63	17.94
60	39.95	25.79
64	53.77	35.63

As a matter of interest I have added in the last column of the table given above the value of the life risk as determined by the American mortality tables. In other words, at the age of 30 the actual cost of the risk of insuring a life for one year is \$8.14. This is what the insured buys. The figures in the first column indicate what the company charges for this commodity. The difference between the two is the load due to administration, salaries, advertising, profit and loss, and all other expenses involved in the conduct of the business.

In general it may be said that any teacher whose physical condition is such that he can buy insurance may protect his family by buying a straight limited life insurance at moderate cost during the earlier years of his service and until his right in the retiring allowance system has been earned. The value of straight life insurance has been somewhat obscured in recent years by the exaggerated claims of life insurance companies in the matter of endowment policies. The wide margin between the promises of the companies in such policies and the actual amounts realized at their maturity has also operated to create suspicion of all insurance.

Neither the vagaries of the life insurance companies nor the representations of their agents ought to obscure the advantages of straight life insurance, nor ought the establishment of a system of retiring allowances, contingent on service, to weaken in any respect the obligation to make reasonable provision against the contingencies of life.

## THE ADMISSION OF TAX-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

DURING the two years of the Foundation's administration no problem has been more constantly before the trustees than the question whether colleges and universities supported and controlled by the state should be admitted to the accepted list and share in the benefits of the retiring allowance system.

The National Association of State Universities and the Association of Land-Grant Colleges very soon after the establishment of the Foundation made formal application for admission and gave the reasons which, in the judgment of those representing these associations, justified such action.

It was recognized by the trustees from the beginning that there were two sides to the question. On the ground of established public policy it seemed altogether desirable that retiring allowances should be established in tax-supported colleges and universities by the states which governed and supported them. Such action seems also more in accord with the dignity and power of a great commonwealth.

On the other hand, when one considers the interests of education the argument for a single uniform system of retiring allowances in all colleges is a very strong one. From the standpoint of educational unity and coherence it would manifestly be a misfortune to divide the colleges and universities of the country into two groups separated by the line of state support. All colleges and universities, whether supported by taxation or by endowment or by tuitions, are public institutions. It has been a misfortune in the past that many colleges have remained isolated enterprises unrelated to the general educational system of the country. It is most desirable that all colleges and universities recognize their common obligation to the educational interests of the state and of the nation. There are no private colleges. An interchange of teachers between all colleges without regard to their method of support or governance is in the interest of true education, and nothing would go farther to promote this than a uniform system of retiring allowances available on the same terms to teachers in all colleges and universities maintaining fair academic standards.

One argument frequently urged against the acceptance of retiring allowances from the Carnegie Foundation by professors in state colleges seems to arise out of lack of familiarity with the method by which the business of the Foundation is conducted. I refer to the objection that the receipt by a state professor of his salary from the state and his retiring allowance from the Carnegie Foundation will result in a divided allegiance.

If this argument had weight it would apply no less to institutions which are not supported by taxation than to those which are. As a matter of fact the relations of the Carnegie Foundation with all accepted colleges are so planned as to avoid any possibility of a divided allegiance as between the college and the Foundation. Once a college has been admitted to the privileges of the retiring allowance system, its professors receive their retiring allowances through the college exactly as they receive



their salaries. They have no occasion to know the Foundation in the matter. When a professor's service entitles him under the rules to a retiring allowance and he desires to claim it, he deals with his college and not with the Foundation. When the college authorities certify to the facts, his retiring allowance is granted as a matter of course. The check for it goes to the treasurer of the college and the professor receives his retired pay in exactly the same way that he receives his active pay. All this is necessary to that conception of the Foundation under which the professor obtains his retired pay as a right, not as a courtesy, as a thing earned, not as charity; from the college he has served, not from a board sitting in New York.

It was in view of these considerations strongly urged by the entire body of representatives of the state universities and colleges that Mr. Carnegie made to the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching the offer contained in the following letter addressed to the president of the Foundation and dated March 31, 1908:

"DEAR SIR: Your favor of to-day informs me of the desire of the professors of State Universities to be embraced in the Pension Fund, as shown by a resolution unanimously adopted by their National Association.

"In my letter of April 16, 1905, handing over the Fund to my Trustees, the following occurs: 'We have, however, to recognize that State and Colonial Governments which have established or mainly supported Universities, Colleges or Schools may prefer that their relations shall remain exclusively with the State. I cannot, therefore, presume to include them.'

"I beg now to say that should the Governing Boards of any State Universities apply for participation in the Fund and the Legislature and Governor of the State approve such application, it will give me great pleasure to increase the Fund to the extent necessary to admit them. I understand from you that if all the State Universities should apply and be admitted Five Millions more of five per cent bonds would be required, making the Fund Fifteen Million Dollars in all.

"From the numerous letters I have received from pensioners and their wives and the warm approval of the press and the public, I am satisfied that this Fund is, and must be for all time, productive of lasting good, not only to the recipients but to the cause of higher education.

"Most grateful am I to be privileged as trustee of this wealth to devote it to such use.

"Truly yours,

"(Signed) ANDREW CARNEGIE.

"Dr. HENRY S. PRITCHETT,

"*President Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.*"

Immediately on the receipt of this letter, the executive committee called a special meeting of the trustees to consider Mr. Carnegie's offer. At this meeting, held the seventh of May, 1908, the trustees voted unanimously to accept the offer of Mr. Carnegie and to enter at once upon the administration of this new endowment in accordance with the terms laid down by the donor. The following resolution was adopted:



✓“*Resolved*, That the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching express hereby to Mr. Andrew Carnegie their hearty appreciation of the generous gift to education tendered in his letter to the President of the Foundation dated March 31, 1908. In accepting this additional trust they join with the founder in the anticipation that it will prove ‘for all time productive of lasting good, not only to the recipients but to the cause of higher education,’ and they beg to assure him that they will give to the administration of the funds thus generously provided the best service of which they are capable.”

In accordance with the action thus taken the trustees then proceeded to recast the rules for the admission of institutions. The rules as thus amended have been printed and circulated. A copy may be had on application to the Foundation.

It may be well to point out that this endowment is available only to such tax-supported colleges, universities, and technical schools as are of the requisite academic grade, and that further Mr. Carnegie clearly sets forth in his letter that the endowment is applicable only to such institutions as formally apply through their governing boards for participation therein, and then only when this application is approved by the governor and by a vote of the legislature of the state in which the institution is situated. In effect, the state must apply for participation in Mr. Carnegie's gift before its institution can be admitted to the benefits of the retiring allowance system.

The legislatures of very few states have been in session since the terms of Mr. Carnegie's letter were made public. The first legislature to which the question was formally and directly presented was that of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, which passed on June 12, 1908, the following resolve:

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS

*In the Year One Thousand Nine Hundred and Eight*

RESOLVE

Relative to the Massachusetts Agricultural College

**R**ESOLVED, That the board of trustees of the Massachusetts Agricultural College are hereby authorized and directed to use their best efforts to secure and accept for the college the benefits of the retiring fund of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

*House of Representatives, June 12, 1908*

Passed.

JOHN N. COLE, *Speaker*

*In Senate, June 12, 1908*

Passed.

WM. D. CHAPPLE, *President*

*June 12, 1908*

Approved,

EBEN S. DRAPER, *Lieut. Governor, Acting Governor.*

## THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN TAX-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

It is clear that the administration of the endowment provided for retiring allowances in state institutions will not be a simple matter. A number of considerations enter which the trustees will need to consider with care, but of these none is more important or complicated than the question of academic standards. During the last few years the curricula of high schools and of colleges have been undergoing great changes, and the process has been one of growth, not accident. But this growth in educational centres, such as the state universities afford, has in many instances been sectional, not national. States in different sections of the country have maintained universities of various standards. In some instances, for example, boys are taken into the freshman class after a scant two years of high school work; in others, no students are admitted who have not completed a four-year high school course, or its equivalent. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that each of these universities has adapted itself along lines of least resistance to its own educational environment, irrespective of any national conception of secondary and of higher education.

The differences in standards which we find, however, not alone among the state universities, but among the other colleges and universities in this country, are not surprising when we consider the development of these institutions. Since about 1870 the most powerful factor in educational processes has been the attempt to equalize studies. In this interval we have seen the old humanistic curricula give way to a demand for manual and industrial subjects; the undergraduate has been given more personal responsibility for the selection of his college studies; and highly specialized laboratories, and libraries filled with original sources of philosophy, literature, and history, are a part of each large college or university. The elective system has grown up with rapidity and is still in process of development. But in this growth the old adjustment between secondary education and higher education has not kept pace, and we find as a result confusion in both fields.

In the colonial period a boy took up college preparatory studies only for the purpose of going to college; the parish minister was usually his teacher. The colleges of that time held a common standard of academic training for admission,—Latin, Greek, and a little arithmetic. The parish teacher knew exactly the amount of “culture” which his pupil should attain before going to college. But as the tendency to a continually widening view of education developed, the articulation between secondary education and college became less evident. The phrases “preparation for college” and “preparation for life” indicate the doubt whether our former curricula were adapted to the needs of public life; and they imply doubt, also, in regard to the value and the dignity of various courses.

The state universities have clearly recognized that they must be a part of their respective state educational systems and that, as such, they belong to a continuous



system reaching from the grammar school to the highest stage. Adjusted in this way, therefore, any changes which they may make in their standards affect not only themselves, but the high schools with which they are coöperating. A large readjustment is not a simple matter. The question of first consideration now is: Where shall a line be drawn beyond which the Foundation will not accept tax-supported institutions? This question has already been urgently brought to the attention of officers of the Foundation by the representatives of state institutions, who are anxious to know just what institutions are to be considered eligible.

It is clear that the Foundation cannot include other institutions than colleges, universities, and technical schools of collegiate rank. Normal schools and the various other professional schools established by the different states, even when they have received the power to grant academic degrees, are not institutions within the scope of the Foundation.

In the case of the universities and of the few state technical schools which are clearly of collegiate rank, or which approximate this rank, the line, in my judgment, is well defined: these two groups of institutions ought clearly to be of college grade and their admission should, of course, await compliance with the standards which the Foundation has adopted.

The case of the agricultural and mechanical colleges and other technical colleges is a complicated one. Many of these institutions are of low grade. It is not always clear whether the true place of the institution is in secondary or in college education. A large part of the work done by agricultural colleges certainly does not require a high school course as a prerequisite.

The first consideration which confronts those who administer the state colleges is the clear determination of the exact purpose which those colleges are to serve. The next consideration is the right correlation of the institution as so conceived to the general educational system of the state.

I am quite sure that those who represent state colleges should make clear to the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation their own solution of these two questions before they ought to be included within the scope of the Foundation's system of retiring allowances, and that those who direct these colleges should also make evident the sources whence secondary education is to be furnished. It is not enough for a state institution to assume fourteen units as its standard of admission. Such an institution must make clear to its own constituents and to the Foundation whence the preparation for this standard is to come. I have endeavored to ascertain by correspondence with the presidents and professors of state universities and land-grant colleges in regions where college standards of admission are generally below fourteen units, the standards for admission which could be honestly and fairly enforced in their states. The results have been interesting and show differences in point of view. First, there is a group of educators who feel that the time has not yet arrived for the Carnegie Foundation to require fourteen units from institutions in the southern states, but



that these institutions should be helped along the path of additional requirements with the aim of making upon them the full demand some years hence. The second group of educators, equally conversant with conditions in their section, express the opinion that what the south needs is to feel the necessity of a thorough education for its boys and girls; that as soon as the southern people realize the necessity of this kind of education, they will secure it for their children; and that the best way to do this is to ask of the colleges and universities in the south the same kind of efficiency that is asked of institutions in other parts of the Union.

From those who would not have more than ten or twelve units required at present the following expressions have been taken:

President Abercrombie of the University of Alabama writes that at present not more than ten units can be asked of nine tenths of the high schools of Alabama. He therefore thinks that "a requirement of ten units, with the agreement that these be raised in from three to five years to the full fourteen, would be a far better arrangement than the immediate enforcement of the full fourteen units." Professor Doster, associate professor of secondary education, also favors this plan, saying that "in Alabama it will be at least four years before the colleges can reap the benefits of the present high school movement, and any attempt on the part of the colleges to raise suddenly their entrance requirements would prove disastrous."

President Thach of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute estimates that "it will take ten years before any very appreciable effect can be realized" from the new county high school system. He is therefore in favor of the Foundation requiring only nine or ten units at present and granting "six or eight years for all of the colleges to reach the maximum number of fourteen units."

President Tillman of the University of Arkansas says: "In this state the high school system is not yet established so as to be able in any large number of schools to give to students training equal to the fourteen units required by the Carnegie Foundation. . . . Next year we will require twelve units. . . . We can safely promise, I think, the enforcement of the full fourteen units within four or five years, . . . and time should be allowed our institution to raise our entrance requirements to meet the standard adopted by the Foundation."

President Harter of Delaware College writes that "of course every one must confess that the trustees have done wisely in fixing the standard at fourteen units and this has been the greatest help to us in building up the grade of southern institutions. . . . I feel sure that in two years more we shall be able to require fourteen units for admission to a regular course. I believe that if the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation would deem it wise and proper to extend the provisions of this great trust so as to include institutions which are honestly striving to hold up their standard of education upon condition that they should, within a reasonable time, react upon the public high schools so that they would give the necessary fitting, it would be a deserved encouragement."

Dr. Yocum, professor of education at the State University of Florida, advocates the admission of institutions "on the basis of ten units, accompanied with a pledge to raise the entrance requirements to fourteen units within a reasonable time." "There is still a gap between the work of most of the high schools and the requirements of the college, though the gap is closing. To insist on fourteen units at once would make it impossible to secure the articulation which is desired. It would become necessary to establish a two or three years' preparatory course for the university. In four or six years, however, the standard of fourteen units could easily be adopted. The result of a gradual raising of the standard would be beneficial all around."

President Matheson of the Georgia School of Technology writes: "The present requirements of fourteen units... practically debar all southern institutions from the benefits of the Foundation at the very time that these institutions need the most encouragement. With very few exceptions, the high schools are in no condition of development that will authorize them to supply fourteen units. The southern colleges are in no position to require fourteen units, and will not be for several years to come. Acceptance, therefore, of said units, in the great majority of cases, will result in unintentional dishonesty. We need your encouragement, and if you will set a standard of ten units, with an increase say to twelve units in two years, and fourteen units in perhaps four years, the southern colleges will eagerly, earnestly, and honestly respond, and the results will be much more satisfactory than those obtained by the adoption of a paper standard which is not enforced."

Professor Weber of the Louisiana State Board of Education says: "There is no secondary school in Louisiana" giving the equivalent of fourteen units. "There is no one more anxious than I to meet the fourteen-unit standard, but I do not believe in attempting the honestly impossible. Our present hardship is largely due to institutions admitting pupils long before high school graduation."

Professor Bondurant, chairman of the committee on affiliated schools and entrance requirements at the University of Mississippi, believes that "if the fourteen-unit standard were enforced immediately it would create the temptation to which you refer, *viz.*, the introduction of a paper standard. On the ten-unit requirement the large majority of our students could be admitted now without condition. In from four to six years if the high schools of this state continue to advance as they have done in recent years (and that they will I think there can be no reasonable doubt), the majority of students coming to us may be admitted to the freshman class without conditions on the fourteen-unit standard."

Acting President Moore of the University of South Carolina writes: "As you well know, efforts to raise standards too rapidly have resulted in dishonest practice. After careful consideration of what may be expected of the high schools of South Carolina, I am convinced that with the session of 1909 ten units may reasonably be demanded, and that by 1913 the schools of this state should be able to



furnish the full fourteen units required by the Carnegie Foundation." The adoption of such a requirement for admission "would not only remove the temptation which now exists to establish paper standards, but would be an encouragement and incentive to institutions honestly to raise their standards and at the same time give great impetus to the movement for the improvement of high schools."

Professor Hand, professor of secondary education in the university, agreed with the acting president that fourteen units should not be required for the next five years, but he added: "Since a large number of people think the chief function of the high school is to prepare for college, and the college is ready to take the pupil before he gets even through the high school, many people are satisfied with the present high school situation. Whenever the colleges firmly demand better preparation and honestly enforce their requirements they will soon find a response."

President Ayres of the University of Tennessee says: "I feel very strongly that the time has not yet come in most of the southern states for the enforcement of a fourteen-point standard of admission to colleges. The reason for this condition is that there are extremely few preparatory schools in the south, public or private, that have properly equipped and manned laboratories for work in physics, chemistry, or biology, and comparatively few schools that are prepared to do satisfactory work in German or French. For these reasons the student who has not done full preparatory work in Latin, at least, will almost certainly be lacking in the fourteen points of preparation. In Tennessee there are only four or five public high schools to my knowledge that are prepared to offer a genuine fourteen-point preparation," and not a single private preparatory school that can offer a "genuine fourteen-point preparation to a student not studying Greek and far less to a student studying neither Latin nor Greek. It is, however, evident that an increasing number of students will be knocking at the college doors who have not studied Greek and whose study of Latin has been only partial or entirely lacking, and yet those students must be admitted to such scientific and technical courses as they can pursue with profit."

President Ayres said that the important thing is first "to interpret the units absolutely as given in your first annual report," that is, not to "give a full unit credit to courses in physics, chemistry, and biology unless they have been taught by laboratory methods in a properly equipped school laboratory and by a man properly trained in scientific work," and to be "equally careful in giving credit for modern languages and other subjects which I have found are not usually taught with the same thoroughness as Latin, Greek, and mathematics." He hoped that the state universities would "be admitted to the benefits of the Foundation without the long delay that must result if an immediate enforcement of the fourteen-unit requirement be made a condition of their acceptance."

President Harrington of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas says: "It seems to me that it would be better to make a requirement of not more than ten units for the present with the agreement that these be raised in a stated time



to the full fourteen. It would be difficult for the average high school of the state to conform to even a ten-unit standard."

Professor Payne, professor of education at the University of Virginia, favors a present requirement of ten units with a promise of increasing the demand to fourteen units in four or six years. President Barringer of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute also favors the "proposition to reduce the demand for the present to ten units, making six or eight of these ten units English, mathematics, and history. You will be doing a great thing for the south if you can put us now on a ten or twelve unit basis and set a reasonable time in which you will reach fourteen units; but in doing this, try and demand, first, units which are essential to the general welfare of the average student."

On the other side of the argument President Patterson of the State University of Kentucky writes: "I doubt the propriety of relaxing the rule which you have already established. I should be inclined to allow the standard to remain for Kentucky as you have adopted it, and to endeavor to stimulate the schools to come up to the standard as rapidly as possible, granting meanwhile to the colleges and universities a discretionary margin not too wide in the acceptance of the results furnished them by the high schools. My own belief is that within two years all the best high schools in Kentucky will have come up to the standard."

President Hinitt of the Central University of Kentucky agrees with President Patterson. He says: "I have a profound conviction that one function of the college is that of leadership, and that the inspiration to educational development must come from above and not from below. I would not retreat from our standard in Kentucky, believing that such a step would be detrimental to the whole educational interests of the state. The fourteen-unit standard ought to be maintained in Kentucky. I believe that in every southern state, where there is so much inertia to overcome, the same standard will probably produce the same results. There is a positive advantage in a standard that will make it necessary for every college president and professor in the south to become an active missionary for public school development. The standard is not impossible, in my judgment, even in a backward state. There may be fewer students in college for a while, . . . but the whole educational system of the commonwealth will be stimulated. And I know of no stimulus so powerful and effective as the maintenance of the standard for all alike by the Carnegie Foundation."

Chancellor Kirkland of Vanderbilt University likewise says: "My opinion is that it would be disastrous for the Carnegie Foundation to accept a lower standard for the south than for other sections. If you allow ten units now, you will find a strong effort made to postpone the day of advancement to fourteen units. The question of enforcing your standard is a difficult one and one that will not be solved by agreeing to a low standard. It is far better, in my judgment, to adhere to one standard uniform for all sections of the country. To be sure, the method of administration may require some concessions."

President Venable of the University of North Carolina says: "Our experience is that the pull upward must come from the university and that it is best for the university to keep a little ahead of the average school until we can get the whole system upon a satisfactory basis. I am strongly of the opinion that it would not help us for you to lower your requirements for this state. It will serve to discourage the increasing number of schools which have pulled up to the higher requirements and will give excuse for the others to go slow in their improvement."

Professor Henderson, visitor of schools for the University of Texas, writes: "I think that it would be unwise for this state to take a backward step. I am personally of the opinion that it would not be wise for the Carnegie Foundation to adopt a ten-unit basis. I believe that a twelve-unit basis would be the very lowest standard conducive to the interests of the high schools of this state and of the south. To establish low entrance requirements, in my judgment, would contribute little to the honesty of institutions. On the other hand, it would subtract much from the efficiency of higher institutions, and, above all, would take away a great stimulus to the betterment of the high schools."

President Blackman of Rollins College says: "I would say that in my judgment the academic conditions hitherto and at present maintained by the Carnegie Foundation should not be relaxed so far as the state of Florida is concerned. In many high schools the work is not well done, but this is the fault, not of the course of study, but of indifferent teachers and undeveloped public sentiment. The unfortunate lowering of the college standards will be sooner corrected if the Carnegie Foundation steadfastly maintains here the conditions which it imposes elsewhere."

President Sledd of the University of the State of Florida sent a letter from which the following extracts are taken: "I do not believe that the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation should formally or officially adjust their requirements to local educational conditions or standards. My limited experience leads me to the belief that one of our greatest needs is a standard that can neither be dodged nor persuaded into compromise. At present it is a credit to an institution to have its work recognized by your Foundation, but that credit would be much impaired should the Foundation try to adjust its standard to the exigencies of local conditions. If I may presume to speak for one of the most insignificant of our southern schools, I venture the opinion that educationally it is better not to be recognized on your present satisfactory standard than to be recognized on a standard lowered to meet our case; and I should infinitely prefer to see a rigid adherence to your standard rather than a compromise to gratify my vanity or accommodate my imaginary needs. You allude to the possible 'adoption of a paper standard which is not enforced.' This is certainly a crying evil; but you will not overcome the difficulty by lowering your standard, but will seem rather, if you will pardon my saying it, willing to compromise with certain conditions, which is precisely the comfort these institutions lay to their misguided souls. I am in fact afraid that a reduction of this standard would put temptation in the



way of more schools to follow the devious and dishonest ways of pretense. The most of our southern schools cannot reasonably undertake 'the immediate enforcement of full fourteen units.' But if you should make 'a requirement of ten or twelve units for the present, with the agreement that these be raised in a stated time to the full fourteen units,' not a few would be gifted with enough optimism and prophetic foresight to undertake the enterprise. In my judgment, scarcely any of our southern state institutions can frankly and fairly agree in any definitely stated time to keep their requirements to your full and proper standard. . . . We should not presume for an instant to forecast our educational progress so definitely as to make any contractual agreement to follow any specified entrance requirements at any specified time in the future, near or remote; and I sincerely hope that you will not subject us to the temptation to make certain promises for future fulfilment which we cannot certainly see our ability to keep. If you should recognize our institution on the promise that five years hence, or ten years hence, they would enforce your standards, the institution entering into that agreement would obligate itself to do something that it could not possibly foresee. Every benefit it received from you, even recognition, would strengthen that obligation; and if at the end of that time, for reasons of convenience, political expediency, educational failure, or change of administration, the institution found itself in a position where it could not fulfil its agreement, it would either repudiate its contract, or would bring precisely the same pressure to bear upon the Foundation which is now being brought to bear to make it recognize the situation, and adjust itself to the circumstances,—and the last state of that man would be worse than the first. I could not venture to predict how long it must be before fourteen units could be required. We will come to the fourteen units, not when it is convenient, but as soon as it is possible; and speaking for this institution, I sincerely hope that you will not let our local conditions cause you to compromise your standards in the slightest degree. *We need your standard* more than we need your classification or recognition."

I have quoted from the voluminous correspondence in this matter at some length in order that the trustees may appreciate the difficulties involved in the administration of this fund in states where colleges and high schools have hitherto been backward. Notwithstanding the divergence of the views here expressed and the difficulties involved in the actual administration of the work, there is general agreement that the standard adopted by the Foundation as requisite for college entrance is reasonable and that all colleges ought in due time to come to it. The difference of opinion concerns the period within which the standard can be attained. The movement for good high schools now going forward in the south is one of the most encouraging evidences of our national progress. Within a short time competent teachers for primary and secondary education will be available in these states. In this movement the colleges can help most directly by the maintenance of fair and honest entrance requirements. If in the enforcement of such standards the college attendance is cut down, no one can



question that the true interests of education and of the whole people of the respective states will be served. The development of the state systems of education is in the hands of those who direct education in the various states and will be carried out by them. The problem which confronts the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation is the administration of the retiring allowance system in such manner as wisely to contribute to this development. The following considerations seem to me to furnish the basis from which our administration must proceed.

1. The purpose of the Carnegie Foundation is to further as far as possible the cause of educational unity. It cannot, therefore, have one standard for college entrance in New York and Iowa and another in North Carolina and Texas. Under any conception of educational organization the college should rest on the standard high school, and when that standard is uniform through the nation we may hope to move the point of admission to college up or down as may seem wise. The Foundation must therefore abide, as it seems to me, by the standard hitherto adopted and approved.

2. On the other hand a tax-supported institution must relate itself to the educational system of its state, and the adoption of entrance requirements out of reach of the best secondary schools is impossible.

The practical difficulty has come in the fact that the colleges have in many cases been willing to adapt their entrance requirements to the weak secondary schools, not to the good secondary schools. This is a matter which rests in the last analysis on the good sense and sincerity of the college authorities and the heads of the secondary schools. If the college complains that it cannot raise standards because there are no schools ready to fit students for such standards, and if the heads of secondary schools declare that they cannot conduct good high schools because the colleges admit students when half through the high school, and neither side deals with the situation, no progress is made. A fair coöperation will make clear the means for right advancement of standards. And in this matter the obligation for leadership is in the college. The most serious obstacle in the past has been the ever present competition for numbers which is the greatest source of demoralization in all American education.

3. In the progress toward the attainment of the full college standards, reasonable entrance requirements honestly enforced are of far more consequence than higher requirements which are not lived up to. Educational righteousness begins in honesty and sincerity and no system of insincere requirements for admission can be considered as an educational gain. There is no method by which the Foundation can be sure of the impartial enforcement of the published entrance requirements of a given college except by a detailed examination of the actual practice in the admission of students, and this will be made in the case of institutions admitted to the accepted list.

4. No institution can afford to change its standards of admission and of college courses unless this change is justified by sound educational reasons and by the needs

of the people whom the institution is to serve. To change standards simply to secure retiring allowances for teachers would be most unjust, and would in the end prove futile.

While institutions cannot be admitted until their standards reach those which the Foundation has adopted, some method of administration can doubtless be found — either by the recognition of individual professors, or otherwise — under which the Foundation may cooperate with such institutions as are sincerely engaged in the effort to reach uniform college standards. This matter should receive the most careful consideration of the trustees to the end that the policy adopted may lend itself to the best interests of education in the whole nation.

On the following pages are given data concerning the state universities arranged in a manner similar to the data given for the accepted list. On page 79 is a map showing for the states of the Union and the provinces of the Dominion the geographical distribution of tax-supported colleges.

# DATA CONCERNING

	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			School of Agriculture			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA University, Alabama .....	1820	30	52	\$ 97,123	\$ 2,500	\$2,200	10.5	319	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA Tucson, Arizona .....	1885	13	28	65,243	10,000	1,811	15	70	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS Fayetteville, Arkansas.....	1871	38	121	223,000	.....	1,968	9.5 <sup>1</sup>	645	4	9.5	13	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA Berkeley, California .....	1868	165	367	1,099,292	894,262	3,300	15	2358	4	15	132	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO Boulder, Colorado .....	1876	53	117	180,000	310,000	2,180	15	840	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF FLORIDA Gainesville, Florida .....	1905	14	16	40,250	1,000	1,515	9.9	69	4	8.3	2	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA Athens, Georgia .....	1785	29	35	103,599 <sup>2</sup>	6,795	2,244	11.8	344	4	11.5	34	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO Moscow, Idaho .....	1889	21	36	182,362	.....	1,800	15	216	4	15	4	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana, Illinois .....	1867	111	532	1,314,349	69,722	3,270	15	2412	4	15	486	4	.....	.....	.....
INDIANA UNIVERSITY Bloomington, Indiana .....	1820	103	141	215,704	33,714 <sup>3</sup>	2,400	15	1774	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA Iowa City, Iowa .....	1847	85	152	572,478	.....	2,152	15	1364	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS Lawrence, Kansas .....	1864	153	215	405,744	.....	2,200	15	1485	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
STATE UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Lexington, Kentucky.....	1880	30	50	93,557	.....	2,000	13.5	468	4	13.5	40	2-4	.....	.....	.....
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY Baton Rouge, Louisiana.....	<sup>5</sup>	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF MAINE Orono, Maine .....	1865	38	83	165,877	.....	2,027	14	489	4	14	24	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN Ann Arbor, Michigan .....	1837	149	324	1,119,230	.....	3,000	15	3130	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA Minneapolis, Minnesota .....	1868	181	317	637,718	.....	2,750	14	2205	4	14	116	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI University, Mississippi.....	1844	21	29	162,000	7,000	2,070	11	286	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI Columbia, Missouri .....	1839	101	199	644,210	.....	2,472	15	1724	4	15	328	4	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA Missoula, Montana .....	1893	13	24	123,144	250	1,866	15	268	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA Lincoln, Nebraska.....	1869	196	218	485,526	1,000	2,214	14	1050	4	14 <sup>4</sup>	1197	4	.....	.....	.....

<sup>1</sup> In 1909 the requirements will be 10.5 units.

<sup>2</sup> Does not include state appropriation of \$100,000 for Agricultural College building.

<sup>3</sup> Special appropriation of Legislature.

<sup>4</sup> Degree course.

<sup>5</sup> Data not submitted.



# STATE UNIVERSITIES

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			Normal Course			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students Required to Offer 14 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students Required to Offer 14 Units or More
10.5	170	4				10.5	24	2	5	67	2									325		
																						46
4	175	4							0	55	2				9.5	28	4			661	Mech. Arts 28	
2 yrs. College	33	4	4 yrs. H. S.	69	3	2 yrs. H. S.	45	2 or 3	10	69	3				15	182		324			Mech. Arts 260 Commerce 177 Arts 180	2473
15 <sup>c</sup>	52	4							15	83	3							37		126		922
						0	15	2	3	75	2								3			
																		4		323	137	
															15	23	4	3			Dom. Econ. 6	235
15	476	4	15	76	3	15 <sup>7</sup>	259	2	15	186	3				15	72	4	203		555	Library Sch. 45	3311
15	125	4							15	159	3							125				2005
15 <sup>8</sup>	309	4	12	180	3	8	54	2-3	10	213	3				9	97		173		344	Nurses Tr. 57	1531
1 yr. College <sup>10</sup>	101	4				15 <sup>11</sup>	94	2-4	15	186	3				8	183	4	102		343		1615
											2	13.5	182	1-3				29		264	Dom. Econ. 20	
						14	4	4	14	97	3							21		62	Forestry 38 Short Courses 47	647
15 <sup>10</sup>	472	4	11	168	3	15 <sup>11</sup>	101	2-4	12.4	791	3							125		1070		3565
2 yrs. College	166	4	4 yrs. H. S.	176	3	7	99	2-3	14	486	3	2 yrs. College	32	2				95		1222	Chem. 68	2819
9	17	4							9	53	2	11	4	4				21		209		
1 yr. College	65	4							16	237	3	15	294	4				151		508		1936
															9	43	2-3	14			Biol. Station 9	258
1 yr. College	127	4							14	183	3				9	493		130		258	Fine Arts 101	1931

<sup>6</sup> In 1910-1911 the requirements will be two years of college. <sup>7</sup> For degree of Graduate in Pharmacy one year of high school is required.

<sup>8</sup> In 1909 one year of college required; in 1910, two years of college.

<sup>9</sup> No specific requirements stated.

<sup>10</sup> In 1909 two years of college required.

<sup>11</sup> Degree course.

<sup>12</sup> In force, January, 1909.

# DATA CONCERNING

	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			School of Agriculture			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA Reno, Nevada.....	1869	25	34	\$52,982	\$169,000	\$2,350	12	143	4	12	1	4			
UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO Albuquerque, New Mexico.....	1889	14	16	32,000		1,525	15	54	4						
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA Chapel Hill, North Carolina.....	1789	49	89	150,023	500	1,947	15	537	4						
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA Grand Forks, North Dakota.....	1883	25	57	210,909	31,183	2,220	15	210	4						
OHIO UNIVERSITY Athens, Ohio.....	1804	20	42	123,200 <sup>1</sup>		1,977	12 <sup>2</sup>	503	4						
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY Columbus, Ohio.....	1870	116	175	708,496	8,002	2,200	15	1567	4	12	214	4			
MIAMI UNIVERSITY Oxford, Ohio.....	1809	22	32	181,621 <sup>3</sup>	66,315	2,190	12	345	4						
STATE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA Norman, Oklahoma.....	1892	25	36	119,812		1,633	15	249	4						
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON Eugene, Oregon.....	1876	36	83	138,200		1,900	14	409	4						
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA Columbia, South Carolina.....	1801	21	24	93,216		1,944	8 <sup>4</sup>	180	4						
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA Vermillion, South Dakota.....	1882	28	44	85,836		1,546	14	235	4						
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE Knoxville, Tennessee.....	1794	61	94	155,655		2,200	11.5	284	4	7	24	4			
UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS Austin, Texas.....	1881	50	111	314,430		2,660	13.3	1282	4						
UNIVERSITY OF UTAH Salt Lake City, Utah.....	1850	33	67	158,000		2,162	15	410	4						
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA Charlottesville, Virginia.....	1819	49	99	209,623	325,000	3,155	11.5 <sup>5</sup>	452	4						
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON Seattle, Washington.....	1881	49	80	202,000	25,000	2,000	14	1183	4						
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY Morgantown, West Virginia.....	1867	42	69	222,838 <sup>6</sup>	400	2,025	12 <sup>3</sup>	443	4		102	3-4			
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN Madison, Wisconsin.....	1848	142	354	1,168,133	2,200	2,970	14	2565	4	14	146	4			
UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING Laramie, Wyoming.....	1886	20	27	102,398	435	1,900	14.5	87	4	10.5	12	4			

<sup>1</sup> Includes special state appropriation of \$74,000.

<sup>2</sup> Estimated on preparatory course.

<sup>3</sup> Includes special appropriation of \$72,168 for new buildings.

<sup>4</sup> In 1909, 12 units will be required.

<sup>5</sup> In 1909-1910 course will be extended to three years.

<sup>6</sup> This does not include earnings of Experiment Station, amounting to \$10,000 or \$12,000 a year.



# STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			Normal Course			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 14 Units or More	
Number of Units re-quired for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units re-quired for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units re-quired for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units re-quired for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units re-quired for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units re-quired for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course						
												12	19	4									
												15	13	4								58	
4 yrs. H. S. <sup>7</sup>	114	4				15	47	2	2 yrs. Col-lege	92	2							30				17	
16	20	2							2 yrs. H. S.	80	2	15	94	4				6	271	Commercial	69	270	
												12 <sup>8</sup>	150	2&4	°	298	4	6	678	Normal	150		
						11 <sup>8</sup>	63	2-4	13	138	3	15	26	4				60	213	425	Vet. Sc. 162	1493	
												12	265	2 <sup>10</sup>						553	Dom. Econ. 94		
15	15	2-4				15 <sup>8</sup>	51	2-4							15	203	4	3	124			357	
14	88	4							H. S.	98	3				°	110	4	9	25			579	
									°	35	2	7	53	2				12					
1 yr. Col-lege <sup>11</sup>	3	2 <sup>12</sup>							4 yrs. H. S.	56	3	14	6	1	°	25	4	6			Commercial	19	191
°	131	4	3 yrs. H. S.	46	3	7	17	2-4	°	49	2							5			Short Courses	193	
13.3 <sup>7</sup>	199	4				6.5	48	2	13.3 <sup>7</sup>	314	3									625	Nurses Tr.	30	
15 <sup>13</sup>	30	2&4										4 yrs. H. S. <sup>8</sup>	185	2-4				5	269			513	
3 yrs. H. S. <sup>14</sup>	106	4							11.5 <sup>15</sup>	230	2							33					
						14 <sup>8</sup>	61	2-4	1 yr. Col-lege	128	2 <sup>18</sup>	14	40	4				40		243	Forestry 10	1192	
12	33	4							12	113	2-4				°	170				282	Phys. Tr. 28		
14 <sup>16</sup>	25	2				14 <sup>8</sup>	32	2-4	2 yrs. Col-lege	133	3	14	73	4	14	77	4	230	908	428	Fine Arts 13		
												14.5	25	4	°	12	4	16	6	42	Commercial	28	2950
																					Vet. Sc. 2	53	

<sup>7</sup> In 1909-1910 one year of college required.

<sup>10</sup> Certificate on completion of course.

<sup>13</sup> In 1909-1910 one year of college required; in 1910-1911 two years of college.

<sup>14</sup> In addition, one year college course in physics, chemistry, and biology; in 1910-1911, 4 years high school and one year college course in physics, chemistry, and biology, with one language, preferably German.

<sup>16</sup> Pre-medical course.

<sup>17</sup> Specials not separated from candidates for degree.

<sup>8</sup> Degree course.

<sup>9</sup> No specific requirements stated.

<sup>11</sup> In 1909-1910 two years of college required.

<sup>12</sup> Pre-clinical course.

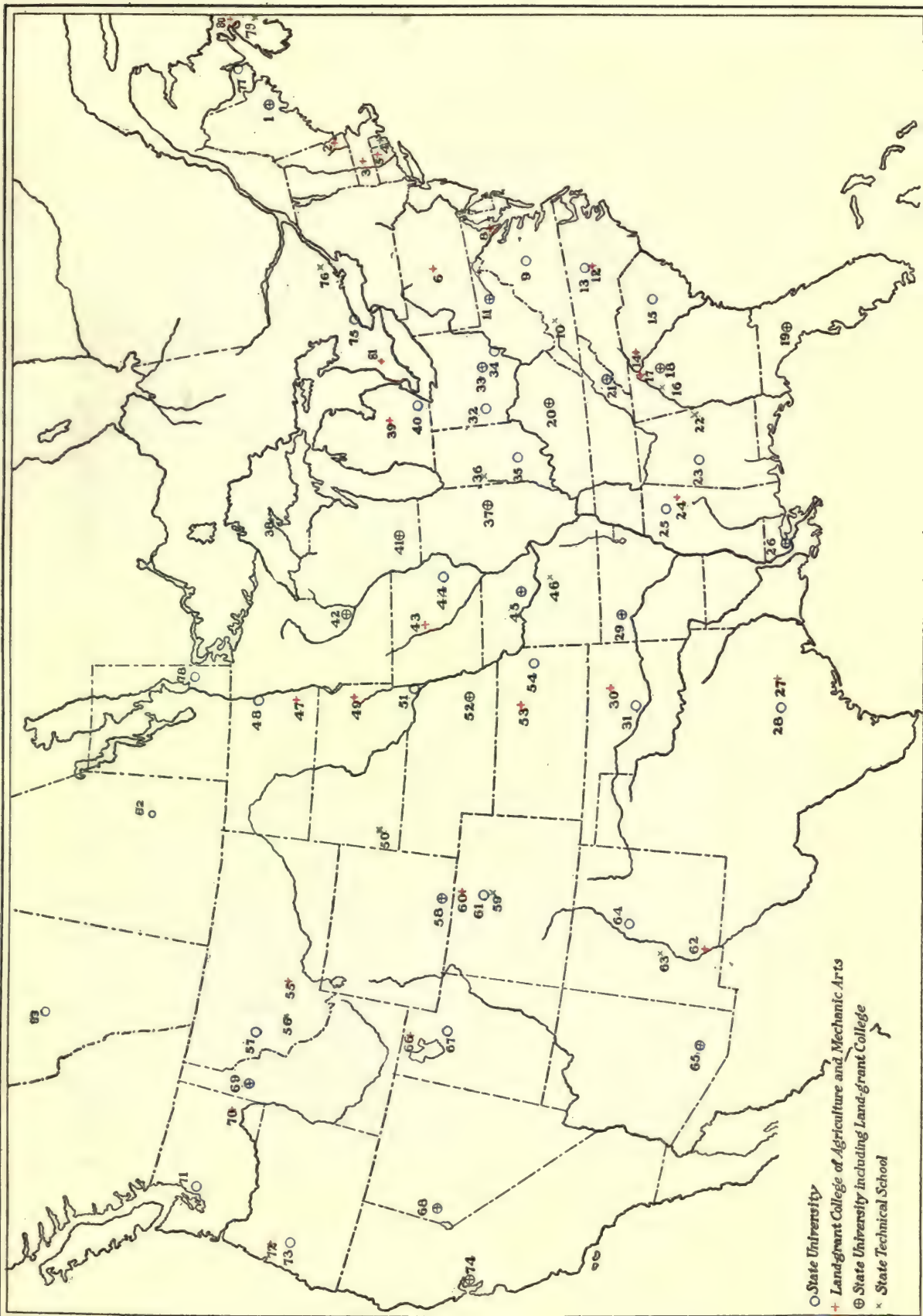
<sup>15</sup> In 1909-1910, 15 units will be required.

<sup>18</sup> In 1909-1910 course will be extended to three years.



# GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STATE AND OF PROVINCIAL INSTITUTIONS

NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		WESTERN DIVISION	
1. University of Maine		55. Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	
2. New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts		56. Montana State School of Mines	
3. Massachusetts Agricultural College		57. University of Montana	
4. Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts		58. University of Wyoming	
5. Connecticut Agricultural College		59. Colorado School of Mines	
6. Pennsylvania State College		60. State Agricultural College, Colorado	
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		61. University of Colorado	
7. Delaware College		62. New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	
8. Maryland Agricultural College		63. New Mexico School of Mines	
9. University of Virginia		64. University of New Mexico	
10. Virginia Polytechnic Institute		65. University of Arizona	
11. West Virginia University		66. Agricultural College of Utah	
12. North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts		67. University of Utah	
13. University of North Carolina		68. University of Nevada	
14. Clemson Agricultural College, South Carolina		69. University of Idaho	
15. University of South Carolina		70. State College of Washington	
16. Georgia School of Technology		71. University of Washington	
17. North Georgia Agricultural College		72. Oregon State Agricultural College	
18. University of Georgia		73. University of Oregon	
19. University of the State of Florida		74. University of California	
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION		DOMINION OF CANADA	
20. State University of Kentucky		75. University of Toronto	
21. University of Tennessee		76. School of Mining, Kingston	
22. Alabama Polytechnic Institute		77. University of New Brunswick	
23. University of Alabama		78. University of Manitoba	
24. Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College		79. Nova Scotia Technical College	
25. University of Mississippi		80. Nova Scotia Agricultural College	
		81. Ontario Agricultural College	
		82. University of Saskatchewan	
		83. University of Alberta	
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION			
26. Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College			
27. Agricultural and Mechanical College of [Texas]			
28. University of Texas			
29. University of Arkansas			
30. Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College			
31. State University of Oklahoma			
32. Miami University, Ohio			
33. Ohio State University			
34. Ohio University			
35. Indiana University			
36. Purdue University, Indiana			
37. University of Illinois			
38. Michigan College of Mines			
39. Michigan State Agricultural College			
40. University of Michigan			
41. University of Wisconsin			
42. University of Minnesota			
43. Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts			
44. State University of Iowa			
45. University of Missouri			
46. State School of Mines, Missouri			
47. North Dakota Agricultural College			
48. State University and School of Mines, North Dakota			
49. South Dakota Agricultural College			
50. South Dakota State School of Mines			
51. University of South Dakota			
52. University of Nebraska			
53. Kansas State Agricultural College			
54. University of Kansas			





## THE STATE AS A UNIT IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

WHEN one studies the educational problems of so large a country as the United States or Canada, it is quickly evident that the political divisions into states or provinces have a direct bearing upon the question of educational administration. Both in the United States and in Canada education is in the hands of the states, not in the keeping of the federal government. And even where the federal government has made grants for education, as in the Morrill Act, the money so appropriated has been turned over to the states to be expended by them in the maintenance of colleges and experiment stations. Recognizing these divisions, the denominations have also followed state lines in the promotion of colleges. In both state and denominational promotion of colleges, local and personal considerations have been allowed to have in many cases too much play.

For example, the locations of the state university and of the state college of agriculture have in too many cases been determined upon political or local considerations. In some cases one section of the state has been given the state university, another the state college, and in some states, like Michigan and Colorado, three state colleges have been founded,—the state university, the state school of mines, and the college of agriculture and mechanic arts. These divisions have rarely been justified, and in nearly all cases they have led to political wire-pulling in the legislature in which the state university in one part of the state is played against the college of agriculture or the mining school in another part of the state in the securing of appropriations. Not only is this true, but duplications of work follow with endless rivalries. One of the most conspicuous of these cases is to be seen in the state of Iowa where the state university and the state college of agriculture and the mechanic arts have each built up large engineering departments. The state of Iowa is at the present time supporting two competing schools of engineering. Not content with this the state normal school has been allowed to start an undergraduate college and to confer academic degrees. On the three institutions the state of Iowa expended in the year 1907-8, \$1,196,754.

Nothing has been more striking in the development of the state universities and colleges than the general lack of appreciation of the value of a fitting environment in the upbuilding and development of a college or university. Such institutions have often been placed by the vote of the legislature in accordance with geographical or political considerations, without the slightest appreciation of the fact that the interests not only of education but of the people of the whole state were being sacrificed. In many cases these institutions have been founded in little villages near the geographic centre of the state without regard either to the possibilities of a university in or near a large city, or to the question of transportation facilities. For example, the University of Missouri and the University of Illinois, both in great and rich states, are in villages, and so situated that it is very difficult to reach them



from many parts of the state. Each of them conducts part of its professional instruction in a distant city. If the one had been originally placed in the suburbs of St. Louis, and the other in the immediate vicinity of Chicago, the interests of education and of the public would have been served.

Perhaps one of the most glaring cases is in the state of Colorado. Denver, the chief city of Colorado, is also its capital and the centre of its transportation system. It was the one obvious place in which the state university ought to have been situated, alike in the interest of the people of the whole state and of education itself. Instead, the state institution was split into three parts, and each of these located in a small and comparatively inaccessible place.

On the other hand some states have dealt with wise forethought, concentrating their efforts into the development of one great institution and placed this in a centre of population and transportation. The University of Wisconsin at Madison, the capital of the state and a city of refinement and beauty; the University of California at Berkeley, adjoining San Francisco; the University of Minnesota at Minneapolis, are examples of such solutions. It is worth much to a boy from a small town to live during his college years in touch with a great community like San Francisco or Minneapolis-St. Paul. The general opportunities for culture, refinement, and intercourse with men are far better in such places. In the long run, universities in isolated towns are apt to reach limits beyond which they cannot go and in many cases are compelled to conduct part of their work—for example, the professional schools of law and medicine—in cities.

The real question which a state should solve in founding a university or a college is: Where may the institution be so placed as to secure the best results for the education of those who are to attend it and to serve at the same time the interests of all the people of the state? To answer such a question intelligently one ought to consider other agencies of higher education in the state, the advantages of location, the presence of a large and cultured community, the ease and economy of transportation for the whole population.

A second consideration which the state ought not to ignore is the relation of the state college to the general system of education. Education in a state is really one thing, from the elementary grade to the graduate school of the university, and the college, whether it be under state control or under a self-perpetuating board, must in the long run relate itself to the system of public instruction. In this matter denominational colleges have been short-sighted. Those who control them have been slow to see that all colleges alike share this obligation to coördinate with the general system of instruction. State colleges, on the other hand, while more generally recognizing this obligation, have not always lent themselves to its fulfilment. Competing schools maintained by the same state have in some instances resulted. Good sense and educational patriotism will be needed to untangle some of these situations.

## POLITICAL INTERFERENCE IN STATE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

SECURITY of position and freedom from sectarian or political restrictions form the surest tests of a true college or a true university. Such an institution is usually the product of experience. Men learn only by their mistakes that tolerance and freedom are the absolute requisites for the upbuilding of a true college. Most of the stronger state universities have had to go through the fire of both political and denominational partisanship before they reached that stage of growth in which freedom of speech and security of place were guaranteed to their teachers. Before this stage is reached the people of a whole state must be educated to the idea of intellectual freedom as the atmosphere in which truth grows. The attainment, therefore, of this stage of university growth marks generally a distinct step in the political and intellectual education of the people of the state. The progress made in this direction has been encouraging. Not many years have gone by since even in the best of the state colleges political and denominational "pull" was in constant evidence; and while in some states there is still much to be desired in these respects, the general progress is toward academic freedom and the elimination of politics from education.

During the past year two state universities have passed through experiences of a very trying nature,—the University of Wyoming, in which a president was dismissed, and the university of the new state of Oklahoma, in which the president and a number of professors were expelled.

The situation in Wyoming is typical of what has gone on in most states. Politics has been allowed to play a part in the control of the university—not so much in the actual nomination of professors (with a few exceptions), but in the matter of control of the university organization. So long as the people of Wyoming are willing to permit the politicians to play with their highest institution of learning, there is little hope for genuine progress. The state is one of small population capable of sustaining a limited number of high schools. The state university can be, however, a good college of untold benefit to Wyoming. The first requisite to this end is a divorce of educational administration from politics.

The case of the University of Oklahoma is one of such significance in education, and the reports concerning it have been so conflicting, that I have endeavored by a personal visit to Oklahoma to ascertain as nearly as one may the facts concerning the dismissal of the president and a number of professors.



## THE CASE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

IN JUNE of this year there occurred in the University of Oklahoma an incident of such unusual character and of such significance as to demand some account in the report of an institution which is just beginning relations with the state universities—I refer to the dismissal by the newly appointed board of regents of the president of the university and a number of its professors, and the appointment by the board of their successors.

Separated from the dust of the political campaign which has somewhat obscured the view of the public, the bare facts are these: The University of Oklahoma was established some seventeen years ago at the small town of Norman on the Santa Fé Railroad. The then territory of Oklahoma followed the example of most western states and unfortunately placed its state university in a small village instead of a centre of population and transportation. Like most state institutions of its region, the university has grown and flourished. Its president proved an effective officer and at the time the Carnegie Foundation was established, the Oklahoma university was the only state university in the south whose entrance requirements equaled those of good colleges in other parts of the United States.

In the early part of 1908 a new governing board, known as the board of regents, was named by the governor under the new constitution. Before this board could take action, the attorney-general of the state decided that the control of the university rested in the state board of education. This latter board met, assumed that a new régime was beginning, and elected, instead of the former president, Arthur Grant Evans, president of a modest school in the Indian Territory. Of this board Governor Haskell was a member. The courts quickly decided that the control of the university did not lie in the state board of education, but in the board of regents; whereupon this board met in June, dismissed the president, chose in his place Mr. Evans, dismissed in addition a considerable number of the professors and appointed in their places men of their own choosing, without waiting for the advice or assistance of the newly chosen president and without making to the public any definite and explicit statement as to the reason for these sweeping changes.

This action has brought down upon the board of regents not only sharp criticism, but charges of unfitness and of subserviency to political and denominational influences. The careful examination which I have made of the whole matter leaves in my mind no doubt of the high standing and good intentions of the board. The president of the board is a man universally respected in Oklahoma as an intelligent and upright citizen; the other members are held to be honorable and high-minded men. It would be difficult to select a group of more intelligent and well-intentioned citizens. Nor is there evidence of systematic effort on the part of the board to serve a particular political party or a particular denomination. To understand how a body of high-minded men could carry out so radical a measure, one must view this whole transac-



tion against the background of the political and economic history of the state of Oklahoma. It is scarcely possible to sit down in New York or Washington and judge such a proceeding fairly and impartially.

The present state of Oklahoma is made up of two territories approximately equal in arable land and in population. Before statehood was accomplished, the territory of Oklahoma was under ordinary territorial government, the governor, judges, marshals, and principal officers being appointed from Washington; but there was a territorial legislature and the citizens of the territory had local self-government. They were able, therefore, to establish colleges and schools. The Indian Territory, on the other hand, was governed by the Department of the Interior from Washington. There was no such thing as local government, and all administration was in the hands of appointees made from Washington. In both territories the appointments were political; the delays of administration were vexatious and oftentimes arbitrary. The officials were in some cases conscientious; in other cases well meaning but incompetent; in still other cases both incompetent and dishonest. The probate commissioners, marshals, and many other officers in whose hands administration lay were of course the appointees of influential politicians in other states. During democratic administration they were democratic; during republican administration they were republican. One who has not had the opportunity to observe life under such conditions can scarcely realize the demoralization and the dissatisfaction which such administration is sure to bring forth. It is not at all surprising that these office-holders were disliked and that they were looked upon as carpet-baggers.

Meantime, the situation was complicated by the rapid increase of population until there were a half million people in each territory, a population distinctively American, made up from all the states of the Union and composed in large measure of the more alert, active, and aggressive elements of our citizenship. Furthermore, the material resources in coal, oil, gas, and similar products introduced still other complications which made the slow and uncomfortable administration of the two territories particularly galling and unsatisfactory.

Under these circumstances the people of Oklahoma and Indian Territory naturally turned to statehood as a measure of relief. Each territory was ambitious to become a state. It was only after it became plain that Congress would never admit them separately that they came together in a common effort to enter the Union as a single state. When the constitution carrying this provision was submitted to the people, it was approved by an enormous majority, which expressed the almost universal desire of the people for statehood. Although the geographic line of division between the two territories was thus wiped out by their union in a single state, this invisible line of separation still runs across all political and economic questions. If senators are to be selected, one of them must come from the Indian Territory; if teachers are to be chosen for an institution, the Indian Territory must not be forgotten. Everywhere in political questions the old-time separation still makes its influence felt.

It was a significant feature of the situation that office-holders almost without exception opposed statehood. They desired to preserve the *status quo*. It is not surprising that this attitude on their part aroused resentment among the great body of the people, and that when statehood came, there was a widespread demand for the removal of the old officers and the substitution of those who had favored the policy for which the great majority of the citizens of the state had stood. Among these office-holders were many in the higher institutions of learning who had been appointed under a republican administration and who were, in popular opinion, looked upon as subject to removal exactly as the clerks of the territorial courts.

Imperfect as this sketch is, it may serve to indicate something of the political régime under which the people of these two territories had lived. The whole population had been educated to look upon every public office as a party asset. Party bitterness was intensified and denominational partisanship excited. The motives of every man who came into political place were attacked. The readiness to accuse all office-holders of insincerity or bad motives led to an almost universal distrust. The common suspicion of men's motives "spoiled the sweet world's taste."

It was in this atmosphere of political distrust that statehood began and the administration of the new institutions of higher learning in the state was undertaken. Of these higher institutions there are six: three normal schools, a colored industrial and normal university, the agricultural and mechanical college, and the state university. The places in these institutions were regarded by a great share of the population of Oklahoma as the legitimate spoils of the victorious party. The administration of the two territories had been for twelve years under republican control, the democrats were hungry for office, and the various boards appointed to the government of these educational institutions were under very much the same pressure to appoint their supporters as was felt in other offices, not educational.

Action varied in the different institutions. In one of the normal schools a fairly clean sweep was made; in the others a large number of changes took place, and the head of the school of agriculture, seeing the storm on the horizon, prudently resigned.

It should be said to the credit of the state administration that it has dealt with the colored institution of higher learning generously. The head of this institution is a colored man of great ability and good sense, a graduate of Brown University. He has received from the present administration a more generous and sympathetic support than he has ever received before, a result reflecting credit on the superintendent of public instruction and indicating a friendly relation between the white and black parts of the population.

The situation at the state university was somewhat different. A new board of regents was appointed by the governor, of which the governor himself is a member. The initial mistake was in the failure to retain any member of the old board who might carry into the new body some appreciation of the history and the tradition of the former work. This mistake is, of course, due to Governor Haskell, but there is



no evidence to show that it resulted from any other cause than his ignorance of university and college work.

The board, by one method or another, partly through the influence of numerous petty complaints, partly as the result of the suspicions and traditions current in Oklahoma, soon convinced themselves that the university needed a new head. They regarded President Boyd, whether justly or unjustly, as not only a republican, but as closely associated with the republican machine. He did not have their confidence; they knew little of his service; and their general judgment was that the institution needed a new head. Had the board of regents, finding themselves in this frame of mind, frankly stated their position, looked over the country, found a man of acknowledged educational standing and of tried executive ability, and brought him to the head of the institution, there would have been little criticism of their action. In fact, they considered this solution of the matter, but the sum which this young and rich state appropriates for the payment of the president's salary is too small to tempt any man from an office of responsibility where his abilities have already been demonstrated. The board thereupon called to the presidency a man of their own acquaintance, a Presbyterian minister of the Indian Territory, who had been connected with a modest educational effort in Muscogee, Mr. Arthur Grant Evans. Mr. Evans is not a university man and has had no touch with university matters or the university system of education in the United States. On the other hand, he has not been an active participant in politics. That Governor Haskell took a leading part in the removal of President Boyd and in the appointment of Mr. Evans is evident. On the other hand, there is nothing to show that he attempted to overawe the board: democrats and republicans agreed in the final action.

The board, however, did not stop with the removal of the president. Without waiting to give the new executive officer any voice in the decision of these matters, it proceeded to investigate through a committee the professors of the university and dismissed a number, amongst them some of the best men in the institution. In taking this action the board undoubtedly allowed itself to be carried away by the scandal and gossip of a small university town. The charges against these men varied all the way from petty complaints about dancing and smoking to remote scandal affecting their families and their characters. The board of regents gave ear unfortunately to every citizen of Norman or of the state who desired to unfold a tale of scandal or of complaint. Part of these accusations had been stirred up by a rival who desired the presidency; part had come from the scandal which grows naturally in a small town; part was the outcome of the universal readiness to suspect, and part undoubtedly was due to unwise acts of these teachers themselves. The regents put entirely too much weight on such evidence. They decided that the university was morally in a bad way and they were called on to "clean it up." They were the victims of their suspicions.

It is clear that the regents had no conception of the blow which they were dealing to the institution they had been appointed to govern. Apparently they expected



that a president and a number of professors could be dismissed, and the institution would go about its work, very much as the work of a shop would continue after the foreman and some of his assistants had been sent off. The attitude of the college professor to his work is not always understood. He performs service out of all proportion to the pay he receives. In order that that service may be given in full measure, he must have security of position and freedom from sectarian or political restriction. The action of the regents in dismissing arbitrarily a number of professors wrought a complete change in the atmosphere of the Oklahoma university. Some of the men who remained scurried about to invoke such political aid as they could to retain their places; others looked about for a new field of work; all who remained in the institution lived in the dread of the arbitrary and uncertain removal which they saw impending. The *morale* of the place was shattered. Those who were sent away were in many respects more fortunate than those who remained, for no man can live under such conditions and do his work in the right way. The gentlemen who brought about this state of affairs unquestionably intended to do the institution a service, not to strike it a blow; but it did not seem to have occurred to them that the university could be cleaned up, if that were necessary, without doing it with a club.

These gentlemen were entirely ignorant of university administration. Having dismissed the president, they no longer had any expert advice. If the situation were not so pathetic, if it had not involved such cruel hardship, there would be something amusing in the picture of this group of busy business men gravely sitting down to choose professors of psychology and education. Even in the ample provisions of the constitution of Oklahoma there is unfortunately nothing to restrain a group of such well-meaning gentlemen from doing the foolish thing when they undertake to administer a matter of which they know nothing.

The fundamental error which the board made was in confusing government with administration. They were appointed to govern the University of Oklahoma, a task for which they were entirely competent. Instead of governing it, they undertook to administer it, a task for which they were absolutely unfit. The question of choosing professors for the specific work of various departments of learning is one which ought to be committed to an expert executive. It is for such work that a board of regents appoints a president. When this board of regents took into its hands the work of the executive, they entered upon a path sure to lead to difficulties, to mistakes, and to injustice.

The action of the board of regents seems, therefore, to me to have been an unwise act performed by a group of well-meaning, busy men who were misled in the main by three influences: first, the prejudices of the political régime which they had shared; second, the erroneous weight given to the scandal and gossip of a small town; and third, their own lack of judgment in attempting to administer the institution instead of governing it.

The charge that the board of regents systematically undertook to appoint men in accordance with political and denominational lines seems to me ill founded. Democrats and republicans were dismissed, and democrats and republicans joined in that action. The politics involved were personal, not party politics, that widespread variety which prompts men to appoint their own friends to office unless held in check by better civic ideals.

The charge of denominational self-seeking arose in the main from two circumstances. One was the candidacy of a man who had stumped the state in support of Governor Haskell and who demanded the presidency of the state university in return. He depended for his influence in large measure on the denominational body which he assumed to represent. The man was clearly unfit, and Governor Haskell and the board of regents were entirely right in declining to appoint him, not only to the presidency, but to any other position. It is a matter of regret that many good men of his own denomination urged his appointment, notwithstanding the man's evident unfitness.

The other circumstance was the publication of a personal letter written by a young minister in Norman to a member of the board. It was a foolish letter, advising the dismissal of a number of professors on the ground of immorality, as shown by dancing and card-playing, and urging the appointment of as many professors as possible who were members of his own church. There is no particular evidence that this letter had any special influence on the board, but it is in many ways one of the most discouraging incidents connected with this unfortunate matter, not so much from the standpoint of the regents or of the university as from the standpoint of a great religious organization. That a man so lacking in true religious spirit, so wanting in the qualities of religious leadership, so unfit to stand before a group of university students as a leader, should be sent by an organized Christian body to be pastor in a university town is a misfortune, alike to religion and to education. The responsibility rests not only upon the unfortunate young man who wrote the letter, but upon the shoulders of those who commissioned him. The preparation of this man for the ministry was not such as would have justified his appointment to such a place, and the organization which commissions such men deals heavy blows at the cause of true religion. Churches even more than colleges suffer from low standards of admission.

The interest which the student of education has in this whole transaction lies, not so much in the determination of the rights and wrongs of the affair itself, as in its effect upon the larger interests of education and of religion, and in ascertaining how the mistakes which have been made may be turned to the better guidance of university trustees in the future. The value of any study of the incident lies not in looking to the past, but in looking to the future.

This affair, unfortunate as it is, carries with it, as it seems to me, important lessons: first, for the state of Oklahoma and its university; second, in the government of all universities; and third, it emphasizes afresh a lesson concerning the method of administration of the country itself which we need greatly to lay to heart.



So far as Oklahoma and its university are concerned, the moral seems clear. A well-meaning board appointed to govern and cherish the university has struck it a blow from which it will take years to recover. It is the duty of this board now to make clear to the people of their own state that they are the governors, not the executive officers, of the institution; that they stand back of their president with their advice, their counsel, their assistance, and that he is to be the executive officer; that, further, the professors of their institution are to enjoy the security and the freedom which alone can make a true university or a true college possible. Most of the state universities have had to go through the fire of political and denominational partisanship before they reached that stage of growth in which freedom of speech and security of place were guaranteed to their teachers. Before this can be done, the people of the whole state must be educated to the idea of intellectual freedom as the only atmosphere in which truth grows. The regents of the University of Oklahoma have now the opportunity to contribute to this ideal in their own state. Meantime, it is clearly the duty of every friend of education in Oklahoma to stand squarely behind the new president in his work, just so long as that work looks toward educational sincerity, toward intellectual freedom, toward security from political or arbitrary conditions. The University of Oklahoma has suddenly acquired an unenviable name among educational institutions which can only be made right by a government and an administration so clearly free of partisanship, so high-minded, so sympathetic to scholarship, so careful of the rights of its teachers, that the dignity and security of the scholar's life may be fully recognized. The regents of the Oklahoma university have it in their power to render a signal service to education and to their state. Just north of Norman is Oklahoma City, a centre of population and transportation, the obviously fit site for their state university. If the governing board of the University of Oklahoma will address themselves seriously and energetically to the problem of the removal of the university and its housing in suitable quarters in the outskirts of Oklahoma City on a plan commensurate with the resources of this great new state, they will confer lasting honor on themselves and earn the gratitude of generations yet unborn. It goes without saying that in carrying out such a movement any arrangement made with the town of Norman should be scrupulously satisfied. The present moment is an opportune one for the consideration of this matter inasmuch as the main building of the university was recently burned and the two buildings now in use are of very little value. Such a movement is worthy of a great and progressive state.

Further, the outcome of this matter suggests a new conception of the close ties which bind together all institutions of the higher learning. No university in this day lives to itself, any more than a state or a community can live to itself. The indignity offered the teaching profession in the University of Oklahoma was felt in every university in every state. It was a blow at academic integrity. The question whether the men dismissed were abler men than those appointed is perhaps an idle



one to discuss. It is clear that some of those who were dismissed were able and successful teachers, and that some of those who were chosen did not have the qualifications which an experienced educational executive would have asked. The essential wrong was that men were being dismissed and appointed by a body wholly unfitted to pass on the academic qualifications of university professors. To prove such fitness something more is needed than an academic degree. The ability to select fit teachers is the highest quality of the trained college executive.

Finally, one cannot forget that this affair is an incident in that national confusion of government with administration from which our nation's business suffers. Two overshadowing questions have confronted us in recent years. One is the frank recognition of the principles of morality and justice as the policy of government; the other is practical and efficient administration of the government's business, not in the departments at Washington alone, but in Oklahoma and Colorado and Alaska and throughout our wide domain.

In our political organization as originally constituted the distinction between government and administration was clearly recognized. The government was in the hands of the chosen representatives of the people, who thereby, according to the theory of the republic, themselves governed. The administration, on the other hand, with the exception of a few great administrative offices which must of necessity share with the people's representatives in governing, was to be carried on by competent men skilled in their respective lines of service. Fitness was the only requisite; the positions these men hold—assisting in the collection of the revenue, the survey of the coast, the apportionment of public lands—have no political significance; they are purely administrative. It is only to the government, that is, to the chosen representatives of the people assembled in congress and the legislatures, and to a few great officers of state, that the duty falls to formulate the laws and to lay down the lines of policy upon which the administration is to be carried on.

These distinctions in the United States to-day have become confused and often reversed. Those elected by the people to govern, namely the legislators, partly abdicate the governing function in order to usurp the purely administrative function of managing appointments to office. The technical and routine administration of the people's affairs, on the other hand, which ought to go on undisturbed by the great question of public policy which the people and their representatives are deciding, is entangled in the governing function through the importance to a mere administrative official of being on the winning side governmentally. The situation as originally intended is thus almost directly reversed. The most singular effect of this partial interchange of functions has been the change in the status of the presidency and the cabinet. These great offices were primarily intended to supervise the general administrative organization and also to cooperate with the legislative portion of the government in framing governmental policies. The president now almost never exercises his supervisory administrative function. Such a thing as sitting down with his

cabinet to the study of the administrative betterment of a great department is unknown. More and more the president has tended to become the political rather than the administrative head of the nation. This may be a fortunate tendency, but one of its accompanying features is not merely unwise, but grotesque, for at the same time that the presidency has given up the supervision of administration on a large scale, it has had forced upon it an overwhelming load of the pettiest kind of administration, — the reward of a local politician with the post office at Fort Smith, and the curbing of a disgruntled faction by the removal of the collector of customs at Sitka. The president as this kind of administrative officer is circumstanced very much as the president of the Canadian Pacific Railroad would be, if he sat down in Montreal day by day and appointed the section men out in Vancouver. The president's coadjutors are involved in the same tendency as he. The appointment of a clerk which is urged by an influential senator looms larger in the horizon of the secretary of the interior than the efficiency of the land office at Glenwood Springs, Colorado; and yet on the latter hang the interests and the happiness of many American families.

The situation is due to no one party. It is the outcome of certain tendencies and practices during the last eight decades. More than one president have sought in vain to stem this tide. There is only one way out, and that is to go back to the fundamental distinction between government and administration, and see to it that those who govern attend to the work of government and those who are to administer to administration. Our system of politics necessitates that government shall be party government, but the introduction of party into administration is no part of that system. In time, the inefficiency and rapidly growing cost of administration interwoven with party politics will cause one of the parties to make the severance of this unprofitable alliance a campaign issue. Some day we shall elect a president on the practical issue, effective administration as divorced from party government.

## PROGRESS TOWARD UNITY IN COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

THE matter of securing uniform requirements for admission to college and the uniform administration of these requirements have continued to occupy a large share of the work of the Foundation. Conferences with college entrance boards and with other bodies have been held throughout the year in the interest of the practical solution of these questions.

The year has been one of marked progress in the direction of reasonable and uniform standards. Not only has much thoughtful attention been given to the subject by college administrators, but higher and more flexible standards have been widely put into practice. The time has now come, I believe, when the efforts which have been made independently in various parts of the country may be crystallized into one standard which shall be national in scope. Educationally we have passed through an experimental epoch out of which we should seek principles and conclusions which shall be practicable and national. The following tables give a list of changes in entrance requirements made during the year, which in itself indicates the movement toward such conclusions.

INSTITUTION		<i>Advance in requirements for admission in units, 1907-8</i>			
NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION					
University of Maine, Orono	14	units to	14.5	units	
Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine	12	"	"	14	"
Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont	12.5	"	"	14*	"
Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, New York	13.5	"	"	14.5	"
Clarkson School of Technology, Potsdam, New York	13.2	"	"	14.4	"
Alfred University, Alfred, New York	13	"	"	15	"
Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania	11	"	"	14	"
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION					
Delaware College, Newark, Delaware	12.6	"	"	12.9	"
St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland	7.6	"	"	13.4	"
Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Virginia	7.5	"	"	14	"
Roanoke College, Salem, Virginia	5.5	"	"	7.5	"
University of Virginia, Charlottesville	8.5	"	"	11.5†	"
Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Virginia	5.5	"	"	11	"
West Virginia University, Morgantown	12.8	"	"	14.3	"
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill	12.9	"	"	14.7	"
Trinity College, Durham, North Carolina	13	"	"	14	"
University of South Carolina, Columbia	7.2	"	"	11.2*	"
Converse College, Spartanburg, South Carolina	9.4	"	"	11.5	"
University of Georgia, Athens	11.2	"	"	12	"
Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida	12.6	"	"	14.4	"

\* Latin Scientific Course.

† In 1900, 14.5 units.



INSTITUTION		<i>Advance in requirements for admission in units, 1907-8</i>			
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION					
State University of Kentucky, Lexington	12	units to	13.5	units	
University of Tennessee, Knoxville	10	“	“	11.5	“
University of Alabama, University	9.2	“	“	10.5	“
University of Texas, Austin	11.4	“	“	12	“
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville	9.5	“	“	10.5	“
Hendrix College, Conway, Arkansas	12.5	“	“	14	“
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION					
Denison University, Granville, Ohio	9.6	“	“	14.2	“
Findlay College, Findlay, Ohio	10.8	“	“	14	“
Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio	11.5	“	“	15.2	“
Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio	11.5	“	“	14	“
Hanover College, Hanover, Indiana	10.5	“	“	14	“
Illinois Woman's College, Jacksonville, Illinois	12	“	“	14.5	“
Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois	13.4	“	“	15	“
Rockford College, Rockford, Illinois	13.5	“	“	15	“
Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois	11	“	“	14.5	“
Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa	12	“	“	15	“
Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa	12.5	“	“	14	“
Drury College, Springfield, Missouri	13.5	“	“	15	“
Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell, South Dakota	12	“	“	15	“
University of North Dakota, Grand Forks	14.6	“	“	15	“
WESTERN DIVISION					
Montana College of A. and M. A., Bozeman	12	“	“	14	“
New Mexico College of A. and M. A., Mesilla Park	8.8	“	“	9	“
Whitworth College, Tacoma, Washington	11.1	“	“	14	“
Willamette University, Salem, Oregon	12	“	“	14.3	“
McMinnville College, McMinnville, Oregon	8	“	“	12	“

In the foregoing table are the names of fifty-six institutions, and their geographical distribution indicates the widespread tendency toward uniformity. In a number of instances these changes were small ones and did not involve any readjustment of the relations between the college and the high schools. On the other hand, the advance in requirements sometimes amounted to as much as a full additional year of work in a secondary school, as at St. John's College and Washington and Lee University. The following institutions raised their requirement by making the course in their preparatory departments one of four years instead of one of three years: Beloit College, Cornell College, Dakota Wesleyan University, Denison University, Drury College, Findlay College, Hanover College, Hendrix College, Hiram College, Illinois Woman's College, Iowa College, Whitworth College, and Willamette University.

During the year the Foundation has corresponded with more than five hundred

colleges on the subject of entrance requirements, and from this correspondence it seems that the record for the coming year will easily duplicate the progress of the year just closed. In localities where the increase has been most marked—as, for example, in Virginia—the change radically affects the high school system. The schoolmen, however, have been glad to cooperate to the fullest extent. An advance in college standards means an advance in the standards of the high schools; it means a more clearly marked field for secondary education and an opportunity for more efficient work.

A brief survey of the development of our educational system during the last thirty years brings out the fact that the preparatory schools have been active in following any movement toward a fair and uniform standard. These schools have felt sharply the difficulties and the annoyance of an ill-defined field of work. With the widening of the curricula of the colleges and the rapid growth of colleges in number, each an independent unit in our educational system, there came into existence almost as many varieties of requirements for admission as there were institutions to make the requirements. The masters of preparatory schools were at much unnecessary expense in preparing boys for college. A candidate for admission to Princeton in 1870, for example, must be able to read Sallust, while a candidate for admission to Harvard did not need Sallust, but did need a knowledge of ancient Greek and Roman history not required at Princeton. Small classes, special coaching, and consequent superficiality were the result. There was no real basis for secondary schools as such, or for college courses; there was confusion; plane geometry, history, and elementary science were high school studies as well as college studies. The period in which Latin, Greek, and arithmetic would admit a boy into any college had gone by, and a new adjustment consequent on the many additions to the old-fashioned standard had not come.

The history of our educational development is notable, too, for the isolated efforts which have made for uniformity. Various small groups of college men and high school teachers have united for the betterment of local conditions; actual progress toward uniformity from a national point of view is of recent date.

The first notable effort toward a uniform standard in college requirements grew out of a conference of New England colleges held at Trinity College, in December, 1879. At the conference a comparison was made of college catalogues and of college examination papers. President Eliot describes the finding in his Report for 1886-7, page 5: "Some colleges demanded no English at entrance; others required the candidate to write a short composition, but gave no hint as to what the subject might be; others called for a knowledge of formal grammar and nothing else; others for both grammar and composition. Some of the examination papers asked questions which could not be fully answered without a minute knowledge of prescribed texts, or of difficult points in grammar; others asked questions suited to the capacity of grammar school, or even primary school, pupils."

This conference led to the adoption by the New England colleges, with the ex-



ception of Yale, of a uniform requirement in English. The English requirements which were then in force at Harvard were accepted. In the next three years a similar uniformity in stated requirements for the classics and for mathematics was accomplished for New England.

The fair degree of uniformity thus put into practice stimulated the formation of permanent organizations of secondary schools and colleges. At the meeting of the Massachusetts Classical and High School Teachers' Association in 1884, the secretary of the association was requested by vote to propose to the heads of the New England colleges a conference with preparatory school teachers. Out of this effort grew the first organization of the kind, the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. The object of the association was stated to "be the advancement of the cause of liberal education by the promotion of interests common to colleges and preparatory schools." The membership of the association was open to all colleges and preparatory schools within the territory, irrespective of educational standard or number of courses. Seventy-three colleges and preparatory schools were enrolled as members, the colleges being:

Amherst College	Amherst, Mass.	Smith College	Northampton, Mass.
Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Me.	Trinity College	Hartford, Connecticut
Brown University	Providence, R. I.	Tufts College	Tufts College, Mass.
Boston University	Boston, Mass.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Colby College	Waterville, Maine	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
Bates College	Lewiston, Maine	University of Vermont	Burlington, Vermont
Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.	Yale University	New Haven, Conn.
Middlebury College	Middlebury, Vt.		

In 1887 representatives of fifteen colleges in the state of Pennsylvania met at Franklin and Marshall College and formed themselves into an association to be called the College Association of Pennsylvania. The next year the scope of the association was extended and the name changed to the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland. The object, among other things, has been from the first "to consider the qualification for candidates for admission to the colleges and the methods of admission." Any college, normal school, or other school preparing students for college may be received into membership. The colleges now enrolled as members are:

Adelphi College	Brooklyn, New York	Canisius College	Buffalo, New York
Albright College	Myerstown, Pa.	Colgate University	Hamilton, New York
Alfred University	Alfred, New York	College of the City of	
Allegheny College	Meadville, Pa.	New York	New York, New York
Baltimore Polytechnic		College of St. Francis	
Institute	Baltimore, Maryland	Xavier	New York, New York
Beaver College	Beaver, Pennsylvania	Columbia University	New York, New York
Blairsville College	Blairsville, Pa.	Cornell University	Ithaca, New York
Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Delaware College	Newark, Delaware
Bucknell University	Lewisburg, Pa.	Dickinson College	Carlisle, Pennsylvania



Franklin and Marshall College	Lancaster, Pa.	St. Lawrence University	Canton, New York
Gallaudet College	Washington, D. C.	St. Stephen's College	Annandale, New York
George Washington University	Washington, D. C.	Swarthmore College	Swarthmore, Pa.
Georgetown University	Washington, D. C.	Syracuse University	Syracuse, New York
Hamilton College	Clinton, New York	Union University	Schenectady, N. Y.
Haverford College	Haverford, Pa.	University of Pennsylvania	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hobart College	Geneva, New York	University of Pittsburgh	Pittsburgh, Pa.
Howard University	Washington, D. C.	University of Rochester	Rochester, New York
Johns Hopkins University	Baltimore, Maryland	University of the State of New York	Albany, New York
Kee Mar College	Hagerstown, Md.	Ursinus College	Collegeville, Pa.
Lafayette College	Easton, Pennsylvania	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Lehigh University	South Bethlehem, Pa.	Washington College	Chestertown, Md.
Lebanon Valley College	Annapolis, Pa.	Washington and Jefferson College	Washington, Pa.
Manhattan College	New York, New York	Waynesburg College	Waynesburg, Pa.
Muhlenberg College	Allentown, Pa.	Wells College	Aurora, New York
New York University	New York, New York	Western Maryland College	Westminster, Md.
Pennsylvania State College	State College, Pa.	Wilson College	Chambersburg, Pa.
Princeton University	Princeton, New Jersey	Woman's College of Baltimore	Baltimore, Maryland
Rutgers College	New Brunswick, N. J.	Woman's College	Frederick, Maryland
St. John's College	Annapolis, Maryland		

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States was organized in the autumn of 1895 at Atlanta, Georgia, at a meeting of delegates from a number of southern colleges and universities. The purpose of the meeting as stated was, first, to organize southern schools and colleges for coöperation and mutual benefit; second, to elevate the standard of scholarship and to effect uniformity of entrance requirements; and, third, to develop preparatory schools and cut off this work from the colleges.

This association has taken definite steps toward promoting uniform standards of entrance, and regulations touching upon the amount of work to be required and the administration of these requirements are made conditions for membership in the association. At the last meeting of the association held at Birmingham, Alabama, in November, 1907, the executive committee presented amended by-laws which are to be considered for adoption by the association at its next meeting. These by-laws are as follows:

1. No college belonging to this association shall maintain a preparatory school as part of its college organization. In case such school is maintained under the college charter, it must be kept rigidly distinct in students, faculty, and discipline.
2. Every college belonging to the association shall seek to promote the development of high schools in every way, and to this end shall admit no students except those who have completed a reputable high school course. In measuring the amount of work done by such students, the association accepts the valu-

ation indicated in the first annual report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, published in 1906.

3. Candidates seeking full admission to college for any degree course in the literary department must offer fourteen units of work. Irregular students may be admitted to partial standing by offering ten units of work. Students may be admitted either on certificate or on written examination, but they must in all cases comply with the above requirements as to the amount of work offered. Conditions may not be so construed as to excuse students from offering at least ten units of preparatory work. The association strongly recommends that all candidates be required to offer English and mathematics, and that all candidates for full admission or for any degree courses be required to offer the necessary preparation in two languages besides English. Irregular students may become regular, that is, may secure full admission to college in two ways: (a) By passing off the necessary number of units in subjects prescribed for admission as the result of private study or in class; (b) by doing other work offered in college which shall be counted as the fulfilment of entrance requirements. In such cases two hours of class work for one college year shall be counted as equivalent to one entrance unit; but college work thus offered for admission must not be counted toward a degree.

4. Special students may be admitted to college without the usual form of examination under the following conditions: (a) They must be of mature age (not less than twenty years is suggested); (b) they must not be admitted to classes for which entrance examinations are required unless they pass such examinations; (c) they must give proof of adequate preparation for the course sought; (d) their names must be separately printed in the catalogue.

5. No preparatory school that confers degrees shall be eligible to membership in this association. Any school seeking membership must have a curriculum of study amply sufficient to meet the fullest requirements of the association for admission to college and must have students regularly finishing such course of study each year.

The roll of members of the association includes nineteen colleges and universities, and thirty schools. The colleges are:

Agnes Scott College	Decatur, Georgia	University of North Carolina	Chapel Hill, N. C.
Central University	Danville, Kentucky	University of the South	Sewanee, Tennessee
College of Charleston	Charleston, N. C.	University of Tennessee	Knoxville, Tennessee
Randolph-Macon College	Ashland, Virginia	University of Texas	Austin, Texas
Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Lynchburg, Virginia	University of Virginia	Charlottesville, Va.
Trinity College	Durham, N. C.	Vanderbilt University	Nashville, Tenn.
Tulane University	New Orleans, La.	Washington and Lee University	Lexington, Virginia
University of Alabama	University, Alabama	West Virginia University	Morgantown, W. Va.
University of Mississippi	Oxford, Miss.	Woman's College of Baltimore	Baltimore, Maryland
University of Missouri	Columbia, Missouri		

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized in 1892 for the purpose of establishing closer relations between the colleges and sec-



ondary schools of the North Central States. The membership of the association comprises, first, colleges, universities, and secondary schools; second, individuals identified with educational work within the limits of the association. No college or university is eligible for membership whose requirements for admission represent less than fifteen units of secondary work, nor which confers the degree of doctor of philosophy or doctor of science except after a period of three years of graduate study, not less than two of which must be years of resident study, at least one year of resident study to be spent at the institution conferring the degree.

The following colleges and universities are members of the association:

## OHIO

Denison University, Granville  
Miami University, Oxford  
Oberlin College, Oberlin  
Western Reserve University, Cleveland

Ohio State University, Columbus  
Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware  
University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati

## MICHIGAN

Albion College, Albion

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

## INDIANA

Indiana University, Bloomington

Wabash College, Crawfordsville

## ILLINOIS

Knox College, Galesburg  
Lake Forest University, Lake Forest  
University of Illinois, Urbana

Northwestern University, Evanston  
University of Chicago, Chicago

## WISCONSIN

Beloit College, Beloit  
Lawrence University, Appleton  
University of Wisconsin, Madison

Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee  
Ripon College, Ripon

## IOWA

Cornell College, Mount Vernon  
State University of Iowa, Iowa City

Iowa College, Grinnell  
Drake University, Des Moines

## MISSOURI

Drury College, Springfield  
Missouri Valley College, Marshall  
Park College, Parkville

University of Missouri, Columbia  
Washington University, St. Louis  
Westminster College, Fulton

## NEBRASKA

University of Nebraska, Lincoln

## KANSAS

University of Kansas, Lawrence

## COLORADO

Colorado College, Colorado Springs

University of Colorado, Boulder

## OKLAHOMA

State University of Oklahoma, Norman



The associations just described have been the important organizations of a local nature whose chief object has been promotion of better understanding and coöperation between secondary schools and colleges. In addition to these organizations, there are a number of state college associations which exist primarily to safeguard the standards of higher education. These associations are organized with definite by-laws for membership which are designed to exclude all colleges and universities which do not meet specific regulations in regard to requirements for admission and requirements for graduation. They are in reality protective associations against sham colleges. Thus, President Benton in explaining the work of the Ohio College Association writes: "We have no legislative protection for our baccalaureate degrees and it has been necessary for us to join together in some such defensive organization as this. We admit no college to this association that does not conform to the rules concerning entrance requirements that we impose. . . . No college is admitted to our association until the application has been on the table for a year following the meeting of the association at which it was filed, and before it is admitted it is subjected to a thorough inspection by our executive committee."

Of these state associations, the one in Ohio has been most active. The constitution provides that members of the association must require at least thirteen units of academic work for admission to the freshman class; and the minimum requirements for a degree as stated are "four years' work of fifteen recitations per week." There are in the state of Ohio fifty-two colleges and universities granting college degrees. Of these the following twenty-two are members of the Ohio College Association:

Antioch College	Yellow Springs	Oberlin College	Oberlin
Buchtel College	Akron	Ohio State University	Columbus
Baldwin College	Berea	Ohio Wesleyan University	Delaware
Cleveland College for Women	Cleveland	Otterbein University	Westerville
Denison University	Granville	Ohio University	Athens
Heidelberg University	Tiffin	University of Cincinnati	Cincinnati
Hiram College	Hiram	University of Wooster	Wooster
Kenyon College	Gambier	Western College for Women	Oxford
Lake Erie College for Women	Painesville	Western Reserve University	Cleveland
Mt. Union College	Alliance	Wittenburg College	Springfield
Miami University	Oxford		
Marietta College	Marietta		

The Missouri College Union is an organization whose object is the discussion of subjects of common interest; it aims to exclude from its membership all colleges of the state which have not the facilities for doing creditable college work. The institutions forming the union are:

Central College	Fayette	Park College	Parkville
Drury College	Springfield	St. Louis University	St. Louis
Missouri Valley College	Marshall	School of Mines	Rolla

University of Missouri    Columbia  
Washington University    St. Louis

Westminster College    Fulton  
William Jewell College    Liberty

A similar organization, the Association of the Colleges of South Carolina, was formed in 1899 by the "*bona fide* male colleges" of that state. The association was reorganized last year in order to include the secondary schools of the state and thus to bring about more intelligent coöperation between the colleges and the schools. The meetings of the association have been largely devoted to discussions concerning admission requirements and methods of teaching. Over fifty high schools are enrolled as members, and the following colleges:

Clemson Agricultural College	Clemson College	Presbyterian College of South Carolina	Clinton
College of Charleston	Charleston	South Carolina Military Academy	Charleston
Erskine College	Due West	University of South Carolina	Columbia
Furman University	Greenville	Wofford College	Spartanburg
Newberry College	Newberry		

In the state of Iowa there exists an exceptional plan for the regulation of collegiate instruction which may be compared with the University of the State of New York. The general assembly created a board of educational examiners, composed of the state superintendent of instruction, the president of the state university, the president of the state normal school, and two men appointed by the governor. This board under the power vested in it has grouped the colleges of the state into three classes. A system of "points" is defined and the colleges are divided according to the number of points that they are able to meet. These points and the method of grouping the colleges were adopted by the board last year. An institution to be recognized as a college of liberal arts must provide a sufficient number of class hours of college grade, to offer opportunity for freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years' work, making a total minimum of sixty hours for any one semester. Laboratory hours are to be reckoned as not less than two for one recitation hour.

The points and the method of grouping the colleges are as follows:

1. The number of class hours for the heads of departments and students shall not exceed twenty a week.
2. A faculty properly qualified shall consist of graduates of colleges who have pursued graduate work equivalent at least to that required for a master's degree.
3. The library shall consist of at least five thousand volumes, selected with reference to college subjects and exclusive of public documents.
4. The laboratory equipment shall be worth not less than \$5000 and so distributed as to establish at least an efficient chemical, physical, botanical, and zoölogical laboratory.
5. The means of support is defined as requiring a permanent endowment of not less than \$200,000 or a fixed assured income equivalent to the interest derived from at least \$200,000.



6. The average salary of heads of departments, exclusive of the salary of the president, shall be at least \$1000.

7. The college must maintain at least seven separate departments or chairs, and in case the pedagogical work of the institution is to be accepted without examination the college must maintain at least eight chairs, one of which shall be devoted exclusively to education or at most to philosophy, including psychology and education. The heads of these departments should be devoted to college work.

8. The graduates must show the completion of a four-year secondary course and a four-year college course above the usual eight grades of common schools, and the standing and character of the institution and the nature of its equipment and work must be such as to entitle its graduates to admission to the graduate college of the State University of Iowa.

The colleges are classed into three groups as follows:

1. Colleges fully meeting the eight points constitute Group A.
2. Colleges fully meeting either five, six, or seven of the eight points constitute Group B.
3. Colleges fully meeting either three or four of the eight points constitute Group C.

The classification is as follows:

**GROUP A**

Coe College, Cedar Rapids  
Cornell College, Mount Vernon  
Drake University, Des Moines  
Highland Park College, Des Moines  
Iowa College, Grinnell

Iowa Wesleyan University, Mount Pleasant  
Morningside College, Sioux City  
Parsons College, Fairfield  
Simpson College, Indianola  
Upper Iowa University, Fayette

**GROUP B**

Central University, Pella  
Des Moines College, Des Moines  
Leander Clark College, Toledo  
Lenox College, Hopkinton

Luther College, Decorah  
Penn College, Oskaloosa  
Tabor College, Tabor

**GROUP C**

Buena Vista College, Storm Lake  
Charles City College, Charles City

St. Joseph's College, Dubuque

In the state of New York the degree-granting power of colleges and universities is under the control of the Regents of the University of the State of New York. This board has outlined a system of "counts," and institutions of higher learning in the state must require for admission seventy counts if they are to grant college degrees. In other words, by legislative power the colleges and universities of New York are based upon a four-year high school system.

In Kansas and in Illinois the state college associations differ from the associations named in that they exclude from their membership their state institutions and that they are devoted primarily to the interests of "Christian education."

All of the college associations just enumerated have exerted an important influ-



ence in their respective territories toward uniformity and toward sincerity in college work. Each association has been purely a local organization, restricting its membership on geographical lines; and each has developed with little reference to educational conditions outside of its own boundaries. The combined efforts of these movements, however, have prepared the way for a national adaptation of certain practices which they have encouraged or demanded. Such a development, inevitable in view of the many local forces at work on the same problems, found its first expression in the report of the Committee of Ten which was appointed by the National Educational Association in 1892. This committee was appointed to formulate plans looking to a greater degree of uniformity in admission requirements. The result of its work need not be discussed here in detail. In approaching the problem the committee turned its attention to the details of the courses of secondary schools and its report gave a tremendous impetus toward uniform secondary education. It was the sense of the committee that the colleges should adapt their requirements to the secondary schools after these schools had been put upon a sound educational basis. With uniformity in the secondary schools, uniformity in college entrance requirements would follow as a natural sequence. The methods of adjustment between the colleges and secondary schools were left for each college or association of colleges to solve.

In 1895 the Committee on College Entrance Requirements was appointed by the National Educational Association to investigate existing entrance conditions and to report upon ways and means of securing uniformity. The final report of this committee, which was in preparation for four years, was presented in 1899. The conclusions rising out of the investigation were set forth in fourteen resolutions. These resolutions furnished a feasible means of securing uniformity in requirements as well as elasticity in the requirements. The report was the first step, national in character, toward bringing the high schools and colleges throughout the country into harmonious coöperation.

The practical administration of uniform entrance regulations, even after such regulations had been adopted, was still to be accomplished, and in a large measure is still to be accomplished. Uniformity in theory without uniformity in practice not only leaves the problem unsolved, but is one of the chief causes of the separation of our educational system into unrelated parts. More than any other one thing it has given rise to a lack of confidence in the colleges among high school teachers. Different interpretations of a uniform requirement may each be made with sincerity, but from the point of view of the secondary school the fairness and the sincerity are not always evident. The difference in interpretation is frequently so great that the requirements, uniform in theory, are in practice radically unlike.

The desire that the various educational associations should consider their problems national rather than sectional resulted in the formation in 1906 of the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This committee is a means by which each association represented in it is kept in touch with

the problems and progress of the various associations. At the meeting in April, 1908, the following subjects were presented for consideration:

1. The definition of the unit for the measurement of admission requirements to involve two elements,—the number and length of the weekly periods devoted to it in school, and the proportion of the entire school work of the year which it comprises.
2. The terminology of preparatory subjects; definitions of "hour," "count," "point," "exercise," "period," etc.
3. The continuation of the study of algebra and English in the last school year.
4. The quality of preparation for college as demanding attention before further increase in quantity of preparatory subjects is attempted.
5. The lists of schools approved for certificate purposes by the various boards and the combining of their results for general use.
6. A committee on transfer-credits.
7. The best way of arriving at an agreement on a scale of units for the measure of admission requirements.
8. Recognition of the element of continuity as of great value and importance in secondary school work.

The committee is composed of delegates from the following organizations:

- The New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.
- The New England College Entrance Certificate Board.
- The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.
- The College Entrance Examination Board.
- The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
- The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States.
- The National Association of State Universities.
- The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- The United States Commissioner of Education, *ex officio*.

The most effective agency working toward uniformity in administration of entrance requirements is the College Entrance Examination Board. This board not only publishes from time to time a statement of the ground which should be covered and of the aims which should be sought by secondary teaching, but it arranges for a uniform and impartial marking of all examination papers. The following subjects as taught in secondary schools come within the scope of the board: botany, chemistry, drawing, English, French, geography, German, Greek, history, Latin, mathematics, physics, Spanish, and zoölogy.

The provisions for the grading of examination books are as follows:

Immediately on the completion of an examination, the answer-books, or other records, shall be forwarded in sealed packages to the secretary of the board, who shall assign them for inspection and rating to such readers as the board, or the executive committee, may have chosen. The answer-books and other records, together with the rating accorded them, shall be returned by the reader, within one week after their receipt, to the secretary of the board, who shall issue



a certificate as to the name and residence of the candidate, the subjects in which examinations were taken, the rating accorded in each subject, and the place and date of the examinations.

Answer-books shall be marked on a scale of 100, books marked from 100 to 90 being rated as Excellent (A), from 90 to 75 as Good (B), from 75 to 60 as Fair (C), from 60 to 50 as Doubtful (D), from 50 to 40 as Poor (E), and below 40 as Very Poor (F). No answer-book shall be finally marked below 60 until it has been passed upon by two readers. Both marks and rating shall appear on the certificate. No revision of any answer-book will be made after its rating has been determined. All books marked below 60 shall be kept for two years. At any time within that period they will be sent, at the request of the candidate, to any designated college.

The board has in the past seven years provided a means for a fair and trustworthy uniformity of entrance terms among the institutions which make up its membership. This membership extends west as far as Cleveland, and south as far as Baltimore. It includes the following:

Adelphi College	Brooklyn, New York	New York University	New York, New York
Barnard College	New York, New York	Rutgers College	New Brunswick, N. J.
Brown University	Providence, R. I.	Smith College	Northampton, Mass.
Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Stevens Institute of	
Bucknell University	Lewisburg, Pa.	Technology	Hoboken, N. J.
Case School of Applied		Swarthmore College	Swarthmore, Pa.
Science	Cleveland, Ohio	Union College	Schenectady, N. Y.
Colgate University	Hamilton, New York	University of Pennsylva-	
Columbia University	New York, New York	nia	Philadelphia, Pa.
Cornell University	Ithaca, New York	University of Rochester	Rochester, New York
Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Johns Hopkins Univer-		Western Reserve Univer-	
sity	Baltimore, Maryland	sity	Cleveland, Ohio
Massachusetts Institute		Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
of Technology	Boston, Mass.	Woman's College of Bal-	
Mount Holyoke College	South Hadley, Mass.	timore	Baltimore, Md.

Another organization which should be here included is the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, formed in 1882 for "practical educational work." The association has 36 branches with an enrolment of about 3800 members. These branches interest themselves in their local educational needs, such as the betterment of state legislation for education, and the closer coöperation between schools and libraries. But the main effort of the association has been to increase the desire for college training among girls, and to keep the educational standard of colleges for women on the same plane as that of the colleges for men. There are 24 colleges and universities whose non-professional degrees admit to membership. Among the requirements for institutional membership in the association the following conditions are made with reference to scholarly standards:



1. Entrance requirements such as demand at least four years of serious secondary school work for preparation.
2. Class sections restricted to such numbers as insure proper individual instruction, except in the case of purely lecture courses.
3. A residence of at least two years in the college conferring the degree, or in a college of equally high grade.
4. Graduation requirements which correspond to the amount of work ordinarily included in four years of serious college study.

The institutions which are members of the association are the following:

Barnard College	New York, New York	University of Chicago	Chicago, Illinois
Boston University	Boston, Massachusetts	University of Illinois	Urbana
Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	University of Kansas	Lawrence
Cornell University	Ithaca, New York	University of Michigan	Ann Arbor
Leland Stanford Junior University	Stanford University, California	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis
Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Boston, Massachusetts	University of Missouri	Columbia
Northwestern University	Evanston, Illinois	University of Nebraska	Lincoln
Oberlin College	Oberlin, Ohio	University of Wisconsin	Madison
Radcliffe College	Cambridge, Mass.	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Smith College	Northampton, Mass.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Syracuse University	Syracuse, New York	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
University of California	Berkeley, California	Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio

In May, 1902, delegates from nine New England colleges met at Boston and organized the New England College Entrance Certificate Board. The purpose of the board, as stated, is "receiving, examining, and acting upon all applications of schools that should ask for the privilege of certification." The organization is an effort to perfect uniformity in accepting secondary school certificates, and differs in its purpose from the College Entrance Examination Board in that the one aims at uniformity in the accrediting plan, the other at uniformity by means of examinations. The colleges which hold membership in the board are:

Amherst College	Amherst, Mass.	Tufts College	Tufts College, Mass.
Boston University	Boston, Mass.	University of Maine	Orono, Me.
Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Me.	University of Vermont	Burlington, Vt.
Brown University	Providence, R. I.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
Mount Holyoke College	South Hadley, Mass.	Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
Smith College	Northampton, Mass.		

In the west and south, through the leadership of the state universities, headway has been gained both toward uniformity in the work of the secondary schools and in the acceptance of this work by the colleges. The accrediting system, with the exception of the Case School of Applied Science at Cleveland, is in force in the colleges outside of New England and the Middle Atlantic States and Maryland. The greater number of state universities engage a professor in the department of education who

devotes his entire time to the high schools of the state; he visits the schools in all parts of the state, and assists in bettering courses of study and methods of teaching.

The chief difficulties in the progress toward uniformity lie in administration. In some instances the trouble grows out of the fact that the standard is ill based with reference to the secondary schools. The colleges in the last analysis must adapt themselves to the secondary schools, a principle emphasized by the Committee of Ten. They should adapt themselves to the work of the high grade secondary schools, and then, if need be, increase or lower their standard in coöperation with these schools. A second difficulty rises out of the desire for numbers. The temptation to laxity in administration is especially strong in institutions dependent upon tuition fees of students. The devices for the admission of students deficient in preparation I shall treat of in other pages of this report. The difficulties in the way of progress will gradually adjust themselves; and as the colleges and universities realize that the path of greatest usefulness lies in coöperation, they will agree upon the amount of work which the schools can adequately do and which, therefore, the colleges may reasonably require. Having fixed upon reasonable requirements they will then enforce them without evasion. It is perhaps not too much to hope that at least a few colleges may seek the unusual honor of a diminished student roll for the sake of such educational consistency and efficiency. The Foundation hopes to publish such a roll of honor.

## THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS

THE progress toward uniformity in college requirements for admission has been so far successful that practically all colleges and universities of adequate financial resources have either adopted a minimum standard resting upon the four-year high school, or are making toward it as rapidly as local and institutional conditions will permit. Meanwhile, the existence of irregularities in the admission of conditioned and of special students must be regarded as an anomaly that tends to make the uniformity nominal, rather than actual. I venture to question the wisdom of the varying treatment of an educational standard already agreed upon and announced.

Admission with conditions is intended, in theory at least, to render unnecessary the loss of a year to students who fail by a small margin to fulfil the regular requirements for admission. Such practice a generation ago had far more justification than at the present time. When high schools were comparatively few in number and courses in them meagre, the colleges supplemented the work in these schools and permitted students to enter courses for which they had not opportunity for complete preparation. There was no idea of competition between the high schools and colleges for students; and under such conditions no one would doubt the value of discretion on the part of a college faculty in admitting deficient students. But since that time the development of secondary schools has radically changed the relations between colleges and schools. A concession designed for narrow application has been so widely extended in practice that a large part of the incoming class of a college is frequently conditioned; and leniency, theoretically justifiable if involving one or two slight conditions, has developed into indiscriminate charity. Such practice tends to defeat a real coöperation between the schools and colleges.

In the subjoined tables are given data concerning one hundred and three colleges and universities, the list being composed of the accepted institutions of the Foundation and of the state universities. In this group we have an apparent approval of a college standard based upon a secondary school system; the entrance requirements, as stated, form an excellent basis of agreement as to the point at which college education should begin; college work is differentiated from high-school work. But this uniformity disappears when a large part of the student body may gain admission, not by meeting the stated requirements, but on terms which vary from one institution to another. At Amherst, for example, application for conditional admission is "considered on its merits;" at Cornell the decision rests with the faculty concerned; at Johns Hopkins with a committee; Drake University waives two units; Marietta College concedes three units; Trinity College four; and the catalogues of New York University, Hobart, Lehigh, Princeton, Smith, Pennsylvania, Vassar, and the University of California, and others, give no information as to how the matter is handled.

All of the colleges in the list state definitely the requirements for regular admission, and when no reference is made to a provision for conditioned students there may be



some implication that no such provision exists. But the fact is that practically all of the institutions in the group accept conditioned students, and the omission is not serious or misleading. The objection has been made to a full statement of the requirements in the catalogue that this would tend to endanger a thoroughly honest stand in the admission of students; that it is wiser to admit a bright, strong, student with two or three conditions than to admit another who may have only one condition, but who is reported as slow, or careless, or not physically strong; and further, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to formulate regulations which will indicate definitely the working of a wise and flexible discretion of a faculty.

These objections are not without force and probably account for the fact that in so many instances no reference is made to the provision. But in my judgment the time has come when the entire question should be reconsidered by college authorities with a view to their best interests and the interests of the secondary schools. A few instances of the results of the present practice may be helpful.

At Harvard a point is equivalent to about .6 of a unit; 26 points, or 16 units, make up the full quota of requirements for admission. Of the 607 freshmen admitted in the fall of 1907, fifty-eight per cent presented less than these 26 points or 16 units. In some cases less than 19 points or 10.8 units were presented. The conditions were not restricted to any one subject, or to any particular group of subjects. On the other hand, 107 members of the class presented more than the required 26 points.

Out of 697 students admitted directly from the secondary schools into the freshman class at Yale University this year, 391 were conditioned. In other words, 57 per cent of the incoming class at Yale did not meet the stated requirements of 14.5 units. At Columbia, 145 men were admitted by examination into the *college* of the university. Seventy of these 145 freshmen met fully the requirements of 14.5 units. Of the 75 freshmen who did not present the full standard the deficiencies ranged from half a unit to 7 units. Nineteen men were deficient in four units or more, that is, in at least one full year's work. In addition to this, ten boys, from seventeen to nineteen years of age, who succeeded in passing in the examinations only 3.5 to 8.5 units were admitted as "non-matriculated students." Similarly at Amherst, 49 out of 165 were admitted with conditions. Twelve of the 49 students were deficient 3 or more units. At the University of Illinois, 218 students were conditioned out of a total of 482; at Wellesley, 88 out of 383; at Cornell, 153 out of 862; at Princeton, 201 out of 360; and 36 out of 41 students admitted into the *college* of New York University were deficient. In the above instances students admitted from other colleges and those admitted as special students are not taken into consideration. In some instances, as at Cornell and the University of Illinois, the number of conditioned students includes those whose academic work, while not satisfying in full the prescribed entrance requirements, provides surplus entrance credit in other subjects. Such students are, of course, only technically deficient.

These figures, while they represent the practice at each institution named, do not readily lend themselves as a means of comparing the practice at institutions which

admit by examination only with institutions which accept certificates for admission. Thus, at Columbia students are admitted only upon examination. The great proportion of students who are conditioned at Columbia have studied the various subjects. At New York University, on the other hand, students are admitted with certificates. Under this plan when a student is conditioned it means, generally, that he has not studied at all the subjects in which he is deficient. There is evidently less justification for a conditioned enrolment in the latter case than in the former. In the middle west the universities have made much effort to perfect the certificate system, and in the first-class institutions adopting this system, the admission of conditioned students tends to disappear. The University of Wisconsin and Oberlin College are types of this kind.

The data given, however, indicate with sufficient clearness that there is a wide margin between the announced standards of entrance and the actual bases of admission. In this twilight zone of irresponsibility there is a full field for the exercise not only of wise discretion, but also of indiscriminate excuse for unfaithful work, and above all an opportunity for the sharp-witted boy to play the college against the high school at the expense of both. Many of the boys admitted with heavy conditions even in the stronger institutions come from first-class high schools and academies, to which they should have been returned until they were ready for college. Some who were not able to make creditable marks in high schools sought and obtained entrance to college after a half-completed course. In one case a candidate for admission as a special student frankly gave as a reason for his application the fact that he had failed to pass the entrance examinations. The sympathetic committee was unable to turn away from so ingenuous a plea. He was admitted.

The tables on pages 114-133 indicate the variations in regard to the time in which deficiencies must be removed. In many cases the catalogue is silent with respect to this matter. At Tulane three years are allowed for the removal of entrance conditions; at the University of Pittsburgh two years; and at the University of Kansas one year. At the University of Alabama the deficiencies must be removed within a "reasonable time;" at the University of Oklahoma they must be removed as rapidly as the "committee may think best;" and at Drake University they must be removed "at once." These details are interesting in bringing out the confusion and the varying attempts to solve a difficult problem.

But the provisions by which the deficiencies may be removed, apart from the element of time, are of more serious importance. At institutions which maintain preparatory departments, such as Oberlin and Iowa College, the difficulty is easily met; and similarly by institutions which arrange special classes in preparatory work. But the disadvantages of combining college work and high-school work are too numerous for discussion here, and as colleges grow in strength they tend to discontinue all preparatory classes.

A number of colleges and universities have attempted to overcome the difficulty



by stated examinations. Experience, however, has shown objections to this plan. First, the expense of a competent tutor to the student; second, the double disadvantage of meagre preparation for college work, and a twofold schedule in the college and in the secondary school is apt to bring discouragement or failure to a student of ability. The result has been that both the tutoring and the examinations are perfunctory.

Harvard University has adopted a plan by which college courses may be "sacrificed" for certain courses required for admission; college work is accepted for entrance credit. Thus, a boy who fails in the examination in Virgil may satisfy the requirement by passing in *Latin B* of the Harvard curriculum. In this case *Latin B* is not credited to the boy toward his degree. At the University of Texas two-thirds of a university course absolves an entrance condition of one unit.

At Columbia an arrangement somewhat similar to the Harvard plan prevails. But if the student makes a fairly creditable failure in the entrance examination, he need not "sacrifice" the cognate college course in order to remove the condition. Thus if a boy fails with a percentage of 35 in Virgil and is able to pass in freshman Latin with a grade of A, B, or C, he satisfies the entrance condition and at the same time receives credit toward his college degree. Until the present year it was possible for a boy to remove an entrance condition in this manner, although he had never attempted to pass the examination.

Obviously the adjustment between the college and the school is not perfect, but leniency on the part of the college does not improve the situation. The difficulty arises from the lack of clearness as to just what the entrance requirements actually denote. The catalogue statements represent them as indispensable. "A student who wishes to enter . . . . . college *must* pass" such and such examinations for admission. It is not stated just why the particular requirements are set up as thus fundamental, but one of two theories is to be implied: the requirements embody an indispensable minimum of knowledge, or they represent an indispensable minimum of training. In other words, an ordinary boy, in order to have a good chance of success in college, must either know the ground covered by the requirements, or he must at least have had the mental drill to be obtained through the mastery of the requirements.

In either event, the college is illogical when, after thus setting up its minimum, it proceeds freely to make exceptions to it. The records show that a large part of the incoming class has conditions, varying from one to five or six, and sometimes more. In the face of such administration, it is impossible to maintain that the entrance requirements are a real minimum; they are at best an ostensible minimum, any part of which is liable in most colleges to temporary suspension, and occasionally to complete abrogation.

It would seem that, to bring order out of this chaotic situation, it is necessary, first, to decide what the minimum is actually meant to accomplish, and second, what



it must embody in order to achieve this purpose. So much being clear it must be enforced as the *sine qua non*. Such a minimum would not be by itself the basis of college entrance, but an inevitable preliminary thereto. The student should unquestionably be required to do much more than this minimum before being admitted. In determining the content and extent of the additional studies, an entirely new set of considerations enters. The present arrangement fails to distinguish the general from the individual factor. In consequence, the entire situation is involved in confusion, the one sure result of which is to habituate young students to notions of promotion, despite superficiality and failure, now in this subject, now in that. The knowledge of every college candidate supplies him with a succession of instances of admission in which the stated stipulations are broken.

The special student is on a somewhat different basis. This provision is more in the nature of an equity proceeding, designed to supply a certain degree of elasticity to an otherwise rigid system of entrance examinations. It furnishes a way of meeting the needs of mature and serious persons who for one reason or another have not pursued the regular educational routine and who, through extraordinary effort, have won a second chance; their seriousness of purpose, their maturity in development, amply compensate a technical deficiency in entrance units. No sensible person would propose to exclude from academic privilege the student who relatively late in life, and after a sobering experience, thus gains access to collegiate opportunities.

An analysis of the special student enrolment, however, discloses the fact that, instead of being limited to the use just indicated, the classification in question has likewise become a means of reducing or of evading entirely the entrance requirements. Unsuccessful candidates for admission urge, and the college agrees, that a system of entrance examinations does injustice to certain individuals temperamentally unsuited to display their acquisitions through written examinations. There is no doubt that this at times happens—though by no means usually in the cases in which it is alleged to have occurred. But in any event the remedy fails. Further, it is urged that through admission as special students college advantages may be extended to those who have had no access to adequate secondary schools. Whatever merit this contention may once have had, it has now lost most of its force. The enrolment of special students has increased, though the cogency of the argument has steadily diminished.

The terms in which college catalogues usually handle this subject are so vague that one is prepared to encounter great laxity and inconsistency in the actual administration. Harvard requires 16 units for entrance; but it admits as specials, without examination, students who are fit "to pursue the particular courses they elect." Out of 2277 undergraduates, there are 231 specials. The Johns Hopkins University requires 15 units for entrance; it admits with 8 units those "qualified by age, character, attainments, and habits of study." Out of 165 undergraduates, 23 are specials. The University of Pennsylvania requires 14.5 units for entrance; but it admits spe-

cials on certificates covering requirements for desired courses only. Out of 299 students in liberal arts, 35 entered on these terms. Adelphi College requires 14.5 units; but it admits "specials" of mature age on "satisfactory evidence of proficiency," and in consequence it has 52 unclassified students out of a total of 170.

It is clear that vague descriptions such as I have quoted will not bar out unfit, undeserving, and incompetent applicants. If the regular procedure is in danger of being suspended in behalf of candidates who allege that they are mature and qualified, quoting the local clergyman and the family physician in support of the allegation, the college must create some effective machinery for intelligently and severely passing on such applications. A faculty committee, which for administrative purposes is liable to reduce itself to a secretary, acting on a few written documents submitted by the candidate himself, cannot avoid or effectively check abuse. In consequence, a measure designed to relieve mature workers of tests no longer important to them has become a back door for the admission of a miscellaneous collection of students of all ages and types, many of them boys of average freshman age, who did not realize the clumsiness or difficulty of admission requirements until they themselves had failed to meet them.

The facts recited above are suggestive. They may indicate any one of several things. For instance, the desire for numbers being keen, lax provisions for the admission of special and of conditioned students may mean that a rigidly enforced entrance standard would threaten seriously to cut down enrolment, and that extraordinary measures have been devised to offset their effect. If this view is correct, the college has embarked upon a dangerous course which threatens its sincerity and its efficiency. Or again, the facts may signify that there is no very close connection between fulfilled requirements and college performance; in which case it is held wise to admit deficient students of average age, or older, and to wipe out their deficiencies by some other method than through the entrance machinery. If this be true, it is time, not to make exceptions that confuse all standards and demoralize students, but seriously to face the problem of organizing preparatory education on a basis that is really vital and indispensable, and of devising machinery capable of enforcing it. It is bad pedagogical procedure to tell the prospective candidate that entrance to college involves a specific previous achievement, and then to familiarize him with the spectacle of frequent cases in which he learns that the terms have been partly or wholly waived. The ethical and scholarly standards would be higher if a less pretentious requirement were unflinchingly enforced.

The Carnegie Foundation will ask the coöperation of all accepted institutions in making a complete exposition of the status of conditioned and special students who are admitted in 1909. In the following data the requirements for admission and the student enrolment are for the liberal arts departments only, unless otherwise specified.

**REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF  
SPECIAL STUDENTS**



# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
AMHERST COLLEGE Amherst, Massachusetts	14	"Each case is considered on its merits."	Two years	
BATES COLLEGE Lewiston, Maine	14	No information		
BELOIT COLLEGE Beloit, Wisconsin	14.9	13.9 <sup>1</sup>		"No student will be matriculated as a member of the college until he has completely fulfilled all the requirements of admission."
BOWDOIN COLLEGE Brunswick, Maine	14	No information		
CARLETON COLLEGE Northfield, Minnesota	14	12.5		Sub-freshman classes and examinations.
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE Cleveland, Ohio	14	12	One year	No conditions allowed in algebra and plane geometry.
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Danville, Kentucky	14	11	"Can be made up in the first two years."	Extra studies in college
CLARK UNIVERSITY Worcester, Massachusetts	14	No information		
CLARKSON MEMORIAL SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY, Potsdam, New York	14.4	11.4	One year	Examinations
COLORADO COLLEGE Colorado Springs, Colorado	15	No information		
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY New York, New York	14.5	No specific information		Mark C, B, or A obtained in continuation of subject at end of first half year, or else formal examination.

<sup>1</sup>Six of these units must be of the eight units in required subjects.

## SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Under-graduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
11.5 units		13	508	"Special students shall take as many courses as are taken by required students." Must take regular required studies the first year; after that, course elective.
Admitted under direction of the committee on registration.		2	438	Special students must take fifteen hours a week and are subject to same regulations as to attendance and examinations as regular students.
No such classification		0	300	"Students in special courses are not received."
"Evidence . . . of earnestness of purpose and adequate preparation."	Persons of maturity	23	303	
14 units		7	289	Special students "may take college studies under the direction of the Faculty."
College course		12	440 <sup>2</sup>	"Special students as a rule are not admitted. . . College graduates . . . will be allowed to select such subjects as they are prepared to take. The work must be arranged by the committee on graduate and irregular students."
"Requisite preliminary training for desired courses."	"Mature persons"	14	144	Except for satisfactory reasons special students must take fifteen hours a week. They are subject to the same regulations as to attendance and examinations.
No information			No list of students.	
Must show, by examination or certificate, sufficient preparation for courses desired.		1	97 <sup>2</sup>	"Special students . . . must register for at least ten semester hours, but are not allowed without permission of the Faculty to register for more than eighteen hours . . . per week."
"Received at the discretion of the faculty."			No list of students.	Special students "must attend the examinations as well as the ordinary recitations of their classes, subject to the same conditions as other students."
14.5 units	18 years	56 <sup>3</sup>	607 <sup>3</sup>	Applications from men of maturity are considered on their own merits.

<sup>2</sup>Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.

<sup>3</sup>Columbia College only.

# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
CORNELL UNIVERSITY Ithaca, New York	15	Decided by faculty concerned.	One year	Must "take necessary instruction outside the university."
DALHOUSIE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY Halifax, Nova Scotia		No information		
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE Hanover, New Hampshire	14.5	No information		
DICKINSON COLLEGE Carlisle, Pennsylvania	14	No specific information		"Special" students until conditions are removed. Thirteen in catalogue, all in list of freshmen.
DRAKE UNIVERSITY Des Moines, Iowa	15	13	"At once"	Must make up required preparatory work "without receiving college credit therefor."
DRURY COLLEGE Springfield, Missouri	15	12 <sup>1</sup>		"Classical students deficient in Greek can remove their deficiency by taking elementary Greek in the college."
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA Franklin, Indiana	14	Each case decided by faculty committee on adjustments.		"Opportunity will be given" deficient students to "receive adequate instruction in those branches in which they may be lacking in preparation."
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Washington, D. C.	14.5	No information		
HAMILTON COLLEGE Clinton, New York	14	No specific information	One term; otherwise each condition counted a "three-hour delinquency."	"College reserves the right to admit with conditions...and it will reduce conditioning to a minimum." Made up under programs of study directed by depts. concerned.
HARVARD UNIVERSITY Cambridge, Massachusetts	16	"Vary with individual records."	One year	Extra college work, or examinations. In hands of committee on admissions.
HOBART COLLEGE Geneva, New York	14.4	No information		

<sup>1</sup> Condition in Greek for classical students the only information in catalogue.



# SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
"Ability to do creditably special work."	23 years	20	791	"Special students are subject to the same regulations in regard to examinations and number of hours as students in the other courses."
Evidence of satisfactory course of school instruction.	19 years	32	220	
"Satisfactory credentials and testimonials."	"Qualified by age, character, practical experience, and habits of study."		1102	Special students "do specialized work of an advanced character."
Full preparation required in English and one other subject.		22	296	"Subject to same regulations as regular students."
Must take examinations prerequisite to desired courses.	21 years		No list of students.	Special students are subject to the same regulations as to attendance, examination, amount of work, etc., as regular students.
Ten units or "mature judgment and experience."		41	137	"Special students are subject to all regulations of the college and are received conditionally."
No information		15	222	
"Familiarity" with the studies preliminary to those desired.	"Suitable age and attainments."	72	205	
"As far ahead of our entrance requirements in some subjects as he is behind in others."	"Men adequately . . . prepared . . . to undertake maturer courses."	3	185	Special students "must elect not less than fifteen hours a week."
"Fitness to pursue the particular courses they elect."		231	2277	Subject to all the regulations of the college.
High school diploma amounting to 12.5 units, 3 of which must be English.		15	103	Special students must take at least twelve hours a week, including freshman English, and such other courses as they may with the approval of the dean select.

# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
IOWA COLLEGE Grinnell, Iowa	14	12	Two years	Academy
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY Baltimore, Maryland	15	At discretion of committee on admissions.		
KNOX COLLEGE Galesburg, Illinois	14	12.5 <sup>1</sup>	Two years; sooner if possible.	Academy or college
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY Appleton, Wisconsin	14	No information		
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY South Bethlehem, Pennsylvania	14.5	No information		
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY Stanford University, California	15	No specific information		"After matriculation additional entrance units may be offered only for the purpose of making up entrance deficiencies."
MCGILL UNIVERSITY Montreal, Quebec		No specific information <sup>2</sup>	One year	Fourteen conditioned students. Special classes <sup>3</sup> and subsequent matriculation examinations.
MARIETTA COLLEGE Marietta, Ohio	15	12	Three years	Academy and summer school. With only 12 units "it will ordinarily be best to take another year of preparation."
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Boston, Massachusetts	14	"Failing in one or two examination subjects."	One half year	Examinations
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE Middlebury, Vermont	14	No specific information	One year	
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE South Hadley, Massachusetts	14	No specific information		"Candidates will not be admitted if heavily conditioned in one of the following subjects: Mathematics, Latin, Greek, French, German, English."

<sup>1</sup> Must include 2 units in English, in a foreign language, and in mathematics.

<sup>2</sup> Conditioned upon failure to pass "in small part of whole examination" if general standing is sufficiently high.

<sup>3</sup> Required for those conditioned in a language.

# SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
			463	No provision in catalogue for special students.
8 units	"Qualified by age, character, attainments, and habits of study."	23	165	"Admitted to a limited number of undergraduate courses."
Certificate of high school work equivalent to entrance requirements.		37	277	"Persons of serious purpose and of mature years" may become special students without meeting the entrance requirements. Subject to same regulations as to examinations, etc., as regular students.
Qualification to pursue subject desired.		18	341	
No information		0 <sup>4</sup>	29	
Five units for those under 25 years of age, not graduates of approved high schools.	21 years	99 <sup>5</sup>	1513 <sup>5</sup>	No women are admitted as special students.
Persons under 18 years of age must present certificates of a satisfactory school course.	18 years	116 <sup>7</sup>	382 <sup>7</sup>	
No specific information			125	
Satisfactory evidence, by examination or otherwise, of qualification to pursue desired subjects.	17 years	508 <sup>8,9</sup>	1410 <sup>10</sup>	Teachers and persons of mature age engaged in technical pursuits are admitted with entrance examinations. They must attend same exercises and examinations as regular students.
No provision in catalogue for special students.			203	
14 units		1	705	"Students over 21 years of age who have taught at least three years... may elect any courses offered," provided that they have prerequisite preparation for the courses concerned.

<sup>4</sup> Six special students in engineering courses out of total enrolment of 644. <sup>5</sup> Special students in all undergraduate departments.

<sup>6</sup> Total number undergraduates.

<sup>7</sup> McGill College only.

<sup>8</sup> "A large part of the special students become regular."

<sup>9</sup> "Partial students;" no special students.

<sup>10</sup> Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.



# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY New York, New York	15.5	No specific information		"Entrance conditions shall be regarded as deficiencies after the beginning of the second term of the freshman year."
OBERLIN COLLEGE Oberlin, Ohio	14	13	Two years; one year if possible.	Academy and summer session
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Brooklyn, New York	14.5	11.5		
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY Princeton, New Jersey	15.8	No specific information		Examinations in December, and also regular entrance examinations in June and September.
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE Cambridge, Massachusetts	16			Same requirements for admission as Harvard College.
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE Lynchburg, Virginia	14.5	10.5	Two years	
RIPON COLLEGE Ripon, Wisconsin	14	No specific information		Special classes
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Terre Haute, Indiana	15	No information		
SMITH COLLEGE Northampton, Massachusetts	14.5	No information		
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Hoboken, New Jersey	14	At discretion of committee on entrance examinations.	One year	
TRINITY COLLEGE Hartford, Connecticut	14	10	Two years	Ten units the minimum; each case is decided on its own merits. No information as to removal of conditions.

# SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
No specific information		3	126	
"Equivalent of requirements for admission to freshman class."		72	801	"Under the same regulations as other students." "Academy specials" are a third class not meeting the entrance requirements, but permitted to take certain college courses which they are fitted to pursue.
Evidence of preparation for special courses and "general training."		9	184	
Regular entrance examinations upon subjects prerequisite to desired courses.		11	658	Time must be fully employed; subject to same regulations, discipline, and examinations as regular students.
"Smaller number of units than are called for in the full requirements."		78	362	Persons "of mature age" are admitted without examination. All special students admitted "at the discretion of the academic board," and all must take four courses of study.
10.5 units	18 years	Not separated from candidates for degrees.	353	Special students must take at least nine hours a week in departments of history, languages, science, mathematics, or philosophy. Teachers, etc., over 20 years of age, may be admitted to classes for which they are prepared, without passing entrance examinations.
"Evidence of ability"		2	202	
Graduates with bachelor's degrees from institutions of recognized standing.			229 <sup>1</sup>	
No such classification			1473	
No such classification			429 <sup>1</sup>	
10 units		1	205	Special students must take at least twelve hours a week. "Special non-matriculated students" are men of mature age who take courses as non-resident students. Nine of these.

<sup>1</sup> Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.

# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
TUFTS COLLEGE Tufts College, Massachusetts	14.6	No information		
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA New Orleans, Louisiana	14.4	11.4	Three years	Entrance examinations within one year or elementary courses in university.
UNION COLLEGE Schenectady, New York	14.3	No specific information	If deficiencies are not removed in first year, the student is classed as "irregular."	Stated examinations
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI Cincinnati, Ohio	15	13	One year	"Examination at a regular entrance examination."
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	14.5	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	15	No specific information	Two years	Conditions must not be heavy enough to hinder progress.
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER Rochester, New York	14	No specific information	"Time specified by the examiners; not more than one year."	"Faculty may . . . require that the deficiencies be made up under a specified tutor."
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT Burlington, Vermont	14.5	No specific information		Examinations in June and in September.
VASSAR COLLEGE Poughkeepsie, New York	14.5	No information		
WABASH COLLEGE Crawfordsville, Indiana	14	12	One year	College courses
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE Washington, Pennsylvania	14	Condition not allowed in more than one language.	Such time as the faculty will allow.	Special class for condition in a language or in physics. "Other deficiencies . . . may be made up privately."



# SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
"Ability to pursue the work."		32	208	Special students must make up a "plan of study...subject to the approval of the major instructor."
No specific information <sup>1</sup>	20 years	36	107	"Irregular students" are a third class, entering by examination or certificate, taking elective courses not leading to a degree. These are admitted only at the discretion of the faculty or dean.
			263	"Irregular students" are those so deficient that they are dropped from their class; they have no college privileges.
"Documentary evidence ... of their ability to carry on" the desired courses.	20 years	180	511	There are also nine "irregular" students. These have satisfied the entrance requirements, but elect less than twelve hours a week.
Certificate covering prescribed requirements for desired courses.		35	299	"Special" students take a course leading to a certificate of proficiency; "partial" students pursue "such individual subjects as they are competent to take."
Examinations to show qualifications to enter desired subjects.		21	81	
Examination or certificate covering 14 units; to include complete entrance examination in desired subjects.		54	362	
"Suitable...attainments"	"Suitable age"	10	117	"Entitled to the privileges and subject to all the regulations of the university."
14.5 units		8	989	"Teachers who present satisfactory testimonials in regard to their success in teaching and their proficiency as students may be received without examinations."
Examination in English composition, or "to take this course as a part of their work."		40	342	No special students beyond sophomore year who have not passed entrance examinations.
Examinations for special subjects.		41	259	Must take fifteen hours a week.

<sup>1</sup> Special students may, at the discretion of the dean, be required to "stand the entrance examination in English."

# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Saint Louis, Missouri	14.5	12.5	"Subsequently as may be arranged."	Extra courses in freshman year.
WELLESLEY COLLEGE Wellesley, Massachusetts	14.5	Cannot be conditioned in two, or heavily in one, of following subjects: Latin, Greek, French, German, mathematics, chemistry, physics.		
WELLS COLLEGE Aurora, New York	14.5	No information		
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY Cleveland, Ohio	15	No information	Two years	
WILLIAMS COLLEGE Williamstown, Massachusetts	14.5	No information		
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Worcester, Massachusetts	14	No information		
YALE UNIVERSITY New Haven, Connecticut	14.5	No information		

# SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
(a) Certificate or examination to show preparation for desired courses. (b) Graduation from accredited secondary school.	(a) 20 years (b) Under 20 years	42	325	
Must satisfy requirements of departments they wish to enter.	"Persons of experience and success in teaching."	8	1184	Persons of less maturity must meet the regular entrance requirements, or their equivalents, and "satisfy such additional requirements as are prescribed by the departments they wish to enter."
Satisfactory evidence of success in their profession.	Teachers		169	"Other special students are not received."
Entrance requirements or equivalent.		14 <sup>1</sup>	277 <sup>1</sup>	Admitted to "only those courses for which their previous training has fitted them."
10 units		20	472	"Partial" students are expected to make up, as soon as practicable, the necessary work to gain admission to regular course.
No information			445 <sup>2</sup>	
No information for Yale College.			1315	

<sup>1</sup> Adelbert College only.

<sup>2</sup> Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.



# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA University, Alabama	10.5	No specific information	"Reasonable time"	Private instruction
UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA Tucson, Arizona	15	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS Fayetteville, Arkansas	9.5	7.5		"Allowed to make up his deficiencies."
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA Berkeley, California	15	No specific information		"Rank of second grade" in continuation of conditioned subject may remove the condition. Entrance examinations in August and January.
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO Boulder, Colorado	15	13		
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF FLORIDA Gainesville, Florida	9.9	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA Athens, Georgia	11.8	8.8	Two years	Private study or additional work at the university.
UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO Moscow, Idaho	15	13	Two years	State preparatory school
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana, Illinois	15	No information		
INDIANA UNIVERSITY Bloomington, Indiana	15	13	Three years	Work in course

# AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Entrance examinations in English, mathematics, and one other subject. About 6 units.	"Mature age"	15	264	
"Sufficient preparation"	"Mature age"	18	64	
Completion of all studies below freshman class if under 21 years of age.	21 years	35	558	Subject to same regulations and to same examinations as regular students.
Fifteen units in any preparatory subjects; or examinations for courses desired.	21 years	141	1247	"Students at large" take such work as they are prepared for, having full-time programs. "Special students" take partial courses. "Limited students" take less work than regular students.
"Qualified to do special work."	21 years	32	532	
Qualification to pursue studies desired.		8 <sup>1</sup>	69 <sup>2</sup>	"No student shall take less than 15 hours a week."
No specific information	19 years	31	156	
Satisfactory evidence of ability to do the work.	21 years	11	243	
"Substantially prepared for work of college grade in their chosen fields."	21 years	54	760	May not enroll for more than two years except by special permission.
Special examinations, including English composition.	21 years	Not listed	1689	

<sup>1</sup>Special students in all undergraduate departments.

<sup>2</sup>Total number undergraduates.

# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA Iowa City, Iowa	15	13.5	One year	University, accredited preparatory schools, or college tutors. If conditions exceed 1.5 units students are "unclassified" until deficiencies are made up.
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS Lawrence, Kansas	15	12 With restrictions as to distributions of conditions.	One year	Extra work in the university.
STATE UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Lexington, Kentucky	13.5	No information		
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY Baton Rouge, Louisiana	9.1	6.1		Stated examinations
UNIVERSITY OF MAINE Orono, Maine	14	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN Ann Arbor, Michigan	15	"At discretion of the faculty."	One year	Regular admission examinations.
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA Minneapolis, Minnesota	14	12.5	One year	
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI University, Mississippi	11	9	"Later"	Extra courses in the university.
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI Columbia, Missouri	15	13	One year	Arranged by committee on entrance.
UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA Missoula, Montana	15	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA Lincoln, Nebraska	14	11		



# AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Fifteen units if under 21 years of age.	21 years	192	948	
"Satisfactory evidence of proper preparation."	"Mature years"	123	899	
"Ability to do proposed work."	21 years	17	494	
Special fitness for courses desired.	18 years	48	442	
Examination in particular desired subjects.	"Unusual maturity and previous advancement in particular subjects."	56	549	
Examination in rudiments of English grammar.	21 years	58	1660	
14 units Exceptions only upon vote of the faculty.		84	1344	Must take same number of hours as regular students.
No information		6 <sup>1</sup>	339 <sup>2</sup>	
Special examinations	21 years	48	877	A third class, "Hearers," have no requirements for admission and do not have to take examinations in course, as do regular and special students.
No information		8	181	
No specific information	"Suitable age"	191	1050	Students in the School of Fine Arts and in the School of Music, and teachers in the city schools, may also be admitted as "unclassified" students.

<sup>1</sup>Special students in all undergraduate departments.

<sup>2</sup>Total number undergraduates.

# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA Reno, Nevada	12	11	One year	A "limited" freshman may have more than 1 unit but less than 2.1 condition, but must make up half his deficiencies in the university high school. A "partial" freshman may have more than 2.2 units conditions, but must register in the university high school and for partial work as a freshman.
UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO Albuquerque, New Mexico	15	13		Preparatory school
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA Chapel Hill, North Carolina	15	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA University, North Dakota	15	No specific information	One year	Model school
OHIO UNIVERSITY Athens, Ohio	12	No information		
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY Columbus, Ohio	15	No specific information	2 years	(a) Stated examinations. (b) Substitution of excess work. (c) Substitution of equivalent work.
MIAMI UNIVERSITY Oxford, Ohio	12	10	No limit	
STATE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA Norman, Oklahoma	15	12	"As rapidly as the enrolling committee may think best."	(a) College courses. (b) University preparatory school for conditions in prescribed subjects.
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON Eugene, Oregon	14	12	One year if possible.	

# AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Under-graduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
No specific information	20 years	23	62	Admitted on recommendation of the professor under whom special studies are to be taken.
Qualification to pursue studies desired.		8	51	
15 units		Not listed	507	
		22	125	Special students "freely admitted;" they must take enough work to occupy their time.
No information		40	376	
Fifteen units, or such credit for subjects as may be necessary to qualify them for the classes they wish to enter.	21 years	49	630	
Twelve units if under 20 years of age; otherwise "satisfactory evidence of fitness."	20 years	26	306	
"Satisfactory evidence" of ability.	21 years	67 <sup>1</sup>	191	
(a) 14 units (b) "Satisfactory credentials and testimonials."	(a) Qualified by age, character, etc. (b) 20 years, or teachers.	Not listed	304	

<sup>1</sup> Includes conditioned freshmen.



# REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA Columbia, South Carolina	8	"Majority" of requirements	"Such probation as may seem best in each individual case."	Extra work in university which the "faculty may require."
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA Vermillion, South Dakota	14	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE Knoxville, Tennessee	11.5	8.5	One year	
UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS Austin, Texas	13.3	10.3 No conditions allowed in English, mathematics, or history.	"As soon as possible."	Examinations or by extra work in the university, two thirds of a university course absolving one entrance unit.
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO Toronto, Ontario		No specific information	Two years	
UNIVERSITY OF UTAH Salt Lake City, Utah	15	13	One year	University preparatory school
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA Charlottesville, Virginia	11.5	Conditions must not be enough to "impair integrity of academic work."	One year	No student "will be conditioned except upon subjects actually taught" in the university.
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON Seattle, Washington	14	No information		
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY Morgantown, West Virginia	12	11	One year	"No student shall be classified beyond the freshman class until all preparatory conditions are removed." Method of removal not given.
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN Madison, Wisconsin	14	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING Laramie, Wyoming	14.5	No information		

# AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

Regulations for Admission of Special Students				
<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
No information		34	180	
"Satisfactory evidence of their fitness to pursue with profit the studies selected."		29	151	Work "credited upon the requirements for a degree only upon action of the faculty."
No specific information	21 years	71	348	Select courses "under the direction of the faculty."
No specific information	Twenty-one years unless "mature for their age and serious-minded."	60	922	"Special students" take less than four courses; "irregular" students take four or more courses, but without reference to prescribed work; they are, however, classified with the regular students.
"Must satisfy the instructor of their competence to undertake the work."	19 years	137 <sup>1</sup>	942 <sup>1</sup>	
"Satisfactory evidence of ability to pursue the desired studies advantageously."		112	612	
"Specific entrance requirements as prescribed for the courses elected by them."	20 years	Not listed	325	
"Satisfactory evidence," etc. Credentials as to previous work demanded.	19 years	99	779	"Students will not be admitted from accredited schools as special students unless they have graduated, or have not been in attendance for the previous year."
"Theirownstatement, that they are prepared to take the work."	21 years "as a rule"	52	207	"Subject...to the usual rules relating to registration and scholarship."
Evidence of ability to do desired work advantageously.	21 years	78	1535	
	"Mature years."	3	29	

<sup>1</sup> University College only.

## CLASS-ROOM AND LABORATORY INSTRUCTION BY TEACHERS

No part of the data asked for by the Foundation this year from the accepted institutions and the state universities caused more discussion and difficulty than the request for the exact number of periods per week taught by each member of the various instructing staffs. Seventy-seven carefully detailed reports were made to the Foundation. In some of the institutions the data were not on record in the administrative office, and in some few cases where they were obtainable they were given with little care and had to be disregarded. The information cannot be taken with any degree of certainty from the college catalogue, for, while the catalogue indicates the courses in which a teacher's work lies, it does not indicate the exact division of work between several teachers in one course.

It was necessary, therefore, in many instances to ask heads of departments to make reports concerning the exact amount of teaching given by each member of their respective departments. When the information came from the professors themselves it was usually accompanied by explanations which cautioned against the use of the figures as indicative of the actual work of college men. For example: "I beg to point out that in no case do these figures fairly represent the university work performed by the teachers in this department, for no account whatever is taken of the large but indeterminate number of hours given to personal consultation with students. In some instances such personal consultation constitutes a large part of the work." Again: "As has more than once been pointed out in faculty meetings, the term *hour* is a very uncertain unit. I have tried, for instance, to equalize the work of the assistants; but I believe that Mr. ——'s fifteen hours represent more than Mr. ——'s eighteen. In my own case, the eighteen hours of the second term represent, perhaps, not more than one half of the work required for the twenty-three of the first."

These cautions against an overvaluation of "mechanical measure of hours" emphasize, especially, four ideas: First, that the nature of the teaching itself should be considered, that the preparation for the class-room is as significant a part of the teacher's duty as are the recitations. Thus, it is to be expected that more time is required in the preparation of lectures than in the preparation for text-book recitations such as occur in elementary modern language classes. Second, the number of courses which an instructor offers at one time is quite as essential an element in the consideration as the number of periods of class-room work. More time, it is urged, is required to offer one two-hour course and one three-hour course than to offer one five-hour course. Third, the number of recitation periods that are "repeated" each week should be taken into account, and the amount of work which the instructor offers in the same form from year to year. Fourth, the reading of themes and papers and consultation with students are time-consuming duties not easily estimated in hours; and of many teachers time is also required in administration.

These difficulties arise even when courses are considered in which there is no labo-



ratory work. The introduction of laboratory instruction makes the problem still more complex. On pages 142 and 143 are tables giving in condensed form the average number of recitation periods given by professors, assistant professors or associate professors, and instructors for the seventy-seven institutions making full reports. The departments selected for these tables are English, mathematics, Latin, Greek, French, German, history, and philosophy. These departments were chosen because they are found in nearly all of the colleges and universities, and because there is practically no laboratory work in connection with them.

A brief explanation of the compilation seems necessary. First, all marked irregularities have been excluded. If a dean of a college, for example, is also a professor and his time largely taken up by his duties as dean, his service as a teacher is not included in the average. Such a man is primarily an executive officer rather than a teacher. Second, in instances where there is more than one professor, assistant professor, or instructor, in a department, the average for each grade is given for that department. Adjunct professors and associate professors have been counted as assistant professors. At the bottom of each division of the table is given the average number of periods of instruction for each department under consideration.

One interesting generalization warranted by the folders of the institutions from which these tables were compiled, is that in each institution there is a careful balancing of work among the departments. Thus, if a professor of history teaches fifteen periods a week, a professor of political science in that institution will closely approximate the same amount of teaching. One college, it seemed, had devised an absolute system by which all professors teach eighteen hours per week, irrespective of the nature of the work.

Another point which is not brought out by the tables in their present condensed form is that a marked difference exists between the amount of actual teaching by professors in small colleges and professors in universities, especially in universities where attention is given to graduate work. The professors in the colleges carry the heavier load of class-room work. In the table on page 136 is given a group of representative small colleges and a group of universities; and for certain departments the amount of teaching in these institutions is compared.

The variation as illustrated by the averages of the two parts of the table is most striking. The professors in the colleges teach from 6.5 to 9.1 more hours per week than the professors in the universities, or they devote 47 per cent more time to class-room work. This variation is probably due to many causes: First, in small colleges more frequently than in universities the professors are called upon to make a "sacrifice of overwork" because of increased attendance without corresponding increase of support. But there is a more significant reason for the difference. In the universities the value of research work is emphasized. A professor in a university of the first class must be more than a good teacher; he must also be a productive scholar.

There are no written laws which govern a professor's hours of study, nor are there,

# TABULAR COMPARISON OF AMOUNT OF TEACHING GIVEN BY PROFESSORS IN UNIVERSITIES AND IN SMALL COLLEGES

UNIVERSITIES	Under each department is given the average number of periods of instruction per week taught by professors in these departments for the institutions named.							
	<i>English</i>	<i>Mathematics</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>Greek</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>German</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>Philosophy</i>
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY .....	8.3	10	9.5	9.5	10.3	9	8	8
CORNELL UNIVERSITY .....	11	13.4	10.5	8	9	9	10.5	7.5
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY .....	7.6	5.5	7.5	5	6	7.5	5.5	6
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY .....	8	8	10	9	12.5	10.3	7.7	....
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY .....	7.7	10.3	10.6	12	....	....	....	10
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA .....	6.5	12	12	8.5	5	4	7	6
YALE UNIVERSITY .....	12.2	9.8	10.5	10.3	15.5	12.7	11	10
<i>Average</i> .....	8.7	9.8	10	8.9	9.7	8.7	8.3	7.9

## COLLEGES

CARLETON COLLEGE .....	16	12	21	....	20	20	....	18
FRANKLIN COLLEGE (INDIANA).....	16	20	20	20	20	20	15	....
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY .....	16	18	15	18	16	10	15	15
MARIETTA COLLEGE.....	18	....	....	15	21	21	18	12
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE .....	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
RIPON COLLEGE .....	12.5	18	12	14	18	18	12	11
WABASH COLLEGE .....	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	....
<i>Average</i> .....	15.2	17	17	16.8	18.4	16.7	15.6	14.8

as a rule, laws which dictate the amount of his teaching in "mechanical hours;" but in some institutions there is an atmosphere as effective as regulations can be in regard to these matters. Especially is this true with reference to study and investigation apart from the necessary work of this kind in teaching. At Columbia University, for example, a professor aims to contribute from time to time to the learning of his special field and by so doing to add to his own distinction as a scholar and to the dignity of his university. Each member of the faculty makes each year a semi-official report of such work to the university. An atmosphere conducive to productive scholarship, however, does not usually exist except in large centres of population; libraries, music, art galleries, and association with men engaged in activities outside of the academic world are all needed accessories to it. Most of the large universities have realized their opportunity to become centres of scholarship and have, therefore, adjusted the amount of teaching required of the individual professor on a basis lower than that college whose sphere is more distinctly undergraduate. At Johns Hopkins University the least number of periods of instruction weekly is required of the instructing staff. The work here is almost entirely graduate.

It is entirely aside from the province of these statistics to compare the actual amount of work between professors in universities and in small colleges. The two groups of institutions are not seeking to cover the same field of education. The data indicate a difference in kind of work.

When the element of laboratory instruction is introduced the problem becomes more complex. It is difficult, or impossible, to obtain a relative value between recitation periods and laboratory periods from a teacher's point of view. The practice in conducting scientific courses varies widely. At Trinity College (Hartford), for example, the professor of physics gives twelve recitations per week and five laboratory periods; at the Case School of Applied Science the figures for the same subject are seven recitations and twelve laboratory periods. The following table gives the averages for the two groups of institutions, taking into account only the work of full professors. It will be noted here, as in the data for the non-laboratory courses, that the work in actual teaching is slightly heavier in the state institutions.

	Physics		Chemistry		Engineering		Biology		Geology	
	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.
ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS . . . .	8.8	7.3	7.8	8.7	9.4	5.4	7.5	5.7	7.8	5
STATE UNIVERSITIES . . . . .	9.3	6.9	9.2	10	10.8	9.6	8.3	10	10.5	5.4

The figures for the amount of teaching in professional schools of law and medicine are of special interest. They indicate the tendency of men in these departments



to devote part of their time to teaching and part to the practice of their professions. Men who are primarily teachers in these fields desire to keep in touch with the active life of their professions by a small amount of practice; and men who are primarily practicing physicians or lawyers and really devoted to their professions are glad to devote a small part of their time to research and teaching. The result is that in the cities, at least, there are few men who are purely teachers of law or of medicine.

The professional schools have been quick to take advantage of this situation and to secure through it a large amount of instruction at a nominal cost or at no cost. At Washington University, for example, there are 30 men on the instructing staff in the medical department. Five of these men receive a salary and teach, on an average, 14.2 periods per week. The other 25 receive no salary and teach, on an average, 3.5 periods a week. At Drake University the medical faculty is composed of 17 members, four of whom draw a regular salary for work averaging 5.6 periods a week. The remaining 13 teach less than one period a week, when the average is taken, and they receive no salary compensation. The situation at the University of Cincinnati is even more striking. The instructing staff in the medical department is composed of 54 members. Of this number 19 are professors. But only three of the entire staff receive a regular salary, one of whom is a professor. These schools are located in cities where the temptation and opportunity for active practice are greater than in small towns. The medical department of the State University of Iowa, in a town of about 8000 inhabitants, presents a contrast. The faculty is composed of 15 members, all of whom receive a salary, and the average amount of instruction is 10.4 periods a week.

As the table on page 140 shows at a glance, there are usually a few men in each medical faculty who are primarily teachers. The others are practicing physicians who devote from one to three hours per week to teaching. There is no exact uniformity in regard to the chairs occupied by the professors who devote most of their time to teaching. But these chairs are closely restricted to therapeutics, materia medica, physiology, the practice of medicine, anatomy, and pathology.

The table includes data for 18 schools of medicine in which 281 professors are engaged. Of these professors 76 receive no salary and over 50 per cent teach three hours per week or less. These figures, being taken from representative medical schools, illustrate the general plan of the composition of medical schools. In the data the laboratory hours, when they are specifically stated, are counted at the rate of two to one lecture or recitation period.

The data for the law schools show the same general tendencies, though not to the same degree. Out of the 24 representative schools, in which there are 125 professors, only 7 professors teach without salary and only 24 per cent of the professors teach three periods per week or less. The table on page 141 gives the same details as were given for the medical schools.

In presenting these data I do not wish to imply that the practice of employing

professors who teach only part time is not a wise one. The data indicate the extent to which this practice is being carried, and they also suggest an extreme which professional schools may be wise to avoid.

# AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION BY PROFESSORS IN MEDICAL SCHOOLS

INSTITUTION	Under the scale below is given the number of professors in the medical departments of the institutions named with their respective periods of teaching per week.																					Total No. Professors	No. Professors Receiving Salary	
	Less than 2 hrs.	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	18-19	19-20	20-21	21-22			Average
BOWDOIN COLLEGE .....	1	3	1	2	2	2 <sup>1</sup>		2 <sup>1</sup>	1													4.6	14	14
DRAKE UNIVERSITY .....	12		1	1	1									1		1						3.1	17	4
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY ..	8 <sup>2</sup>	4	5	1																		2	18	18
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY .....		1	3	3	2																	3.6	10 <sup>3</sup>	10
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA .....				1	2		4		1	3			1			2					(30) 1	10.4	15 <sup>5</sup>	15
STATE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA .....		1						1			1				2		1	1				12.2	7	7
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA ..		11	5	10	2	1	2	2		1												4	34 <sup>7</sup>	34
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI .....											1										See Note 4	19	1	
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO .....	8	6	1	2					1													2.3 <sup>6</sup>	17	16
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS .....					1							1			1		1					12.2	4	4
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI .....			1	2	1	2	1				1											5.7	8	8
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA .....	7	6	4	3				1	1													2.8	22	18
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH .....	7	3	1	3	1							1	1					1				4.2	18	15
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE .....	1	2	5	3		1	2															3	14	14
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA .....			4	2		1		1	2													5.2	10	10
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY .....	8	11	2			1			1			4						2			1 (24)	5.3	30	5
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY .....		1		1	1	2					1											5.6 <sup>5</sup>	18	6
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY .....											1		2			3						13.1	6	8
Total number professors .....	50	49	33	34	13	10	9	7	7	4	5	6	4	1	3	6	2	4				281		

<sup>1</sup> One gives only one week of work.

<sup>2</sup> Two give one period a week for 10 weeks, and one, one period a week for 14 weeks.

<sup>3</sup> The periods for one professor are not given definitely; the average is made on the basis of the other 9.

<sup>4</sup> Data for only the one salaried professor are given.

<sup>5</sup> Average made out on basis of 6 professors; the periods for the other 12 are not given.

<sup>6</sup> Made out on basis of 16 professors.

<sup>7</sup> Includes undergraduate and graduate schools of medicine.

<sup>8</sup> Includes College of Medicine and College of Homeopathic Medicine.



# AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION BY PROFESSORS IN LAW SCHOOLS

INSTITUTION	Under the scale below is given the number of professors in the law departments of the institutions named with their respective periods of teaching per week.															Total No. Professors	No. of Professors Receiving Salary
	Less than 2 hrs.	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	Average	
DICKINSON COLLEGE .....				1		1	1			1		1				7.8	5
DRAKE UNIVERSITY .....			1	1	1							2				7.2	5
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY...	2	6	2	1		1				1		1				3.7	14
LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY ..								2								8	2
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY .....				2			1			1	2	1	1	1		9.5	9
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.....		2	2	2	2		1		2							4.8	11
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA.....						1	2	1		1						7.6	5
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA ..		1				2										4.6	3
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA .....												2				12	2
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI.....		2				1	1		1							5.2	5
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO .....										1					2	13.3	5
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA.....												1			1	14.5	2
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS .....										3						10	3
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.....							1			3						9.2	4
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA .....							2					1				8	3
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA .....		2	1	2		1	2		1							4.8	9
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH .....		3		2	2											3.4	7 <sup>2</sup>
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA .....								2		1						8.6	3
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA .....									1			1		1		11.3	3
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE .....					1					1						7.5	2
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA .....							3									7	3
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY .....								3								8 <sup>1</sup>	5
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY .....	3	4				2		1	1							3.6	11
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY .....										2			1		1	12	4
Total number professors.....	5	20	6	11	6	9	14	9	6	15	2	10	2	2	4	125	

<sup>1</sup> Made out on basis of three paid professors. Number of periods not given for other two.

<sup>2</sup> Paid wholly from students' fees.

# NUMBER OF PERIODS OF INSTRUCTION GIVEN BY THREE GRADES OF INSTRUCTING STAFF

## I. IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

Scale for Number Periods of Class-room Instruction	Under each head below is given the number of institutions which report the number of periods of instruction given per week by professors, assistant professors, and instructors in their respective departments as indicated by scale in first column.																										
	English			Mathematics			Latin			Greek			French			German			History			Philosophy					
	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor			
Less than 5 hrs.	.....	.....	2	1	.....	.....	1	2	.....	1	.....	.....	3	1	.....	1	1	.....	2	1	.....	.....	.....	.....			
5 to 6 hrs.	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	1	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
6 " 7 "	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	1	1	2	2	2	1	.....	.....			
7 " 8 "	3	3	1	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	2	.....	1	2	1	.....	1	1	1			
8 " 9 "	4	1	5	2	.....	1	.....	.....	2	2	1	2	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	2	.....	3	.....	1			
9 " 10 "	5	5	3	4	.....	2	4	2	.....	3	1	1	4	.....	1	4	.....	1	6	2	2	6	3	.....			
10 " 11 "	6	2	2	5	5	2	6	3	.....	6	3	1	1	3	.....	4	1	2	7	3	1	3	.....	.....			
11 " 12 "	4	4	.....	3	2	.....	3	1	2	4	.....	1	2	.....	2	2	3	.....	3	4	.....	3	1	.....			
12 " 13 "	9	2	4	5	5	4	8	3	2	5	3	2	7	1	3	4	3	4	5	4	3	4	2	2			
13 " 14 "	1	3	1	5	1	3	4	3	1	3	.....	.....	3	3	2	4	6	3	5	2	1	.....	.....	.....			
14 " 15 "	3	2	2	5	2	3	2	3	.....	3	2	3	5	2	3	6	2	2	1	1	2	2	.....	.....			
15 " 16 "	1	.....	2	1	1	6	5	1	4	4	.....	2	5	4	7	7	1	7	3	.....	1	4	.....	.....			
16 " 17 "	4	1	1	5	1	1	2	.....	.....	5	.....	1	5	.....	4	4	1	5	3	.....	1	.....	.....	.....			
17 " 18 "	.....	.....	.....	2	1	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	.....	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
18 " 19 "	2	1	2	4	.....	3	1	.....	1	2	.....	1	3	.....	1	3	.....	1	2	.....	.....	3	.....	.....			
19 " 20 "	.....	.....	.....	1	1	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
20 " 21 "	.....	.....	.....	3	1	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
21 " 22 "	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
22 " 23 "	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
23 " 24 "	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
24 " 25 "	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
25 " 26 "	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....			
Average number periods	11.1	10.9	10.9	13.1	13.3	13	12.6	11.2	12.3	12.5	10.1	12.8	13.3	12.3	12.8	13.5	12.7	13.1	11.2	10	9.7	11	9.3	9.7			

# NUMBER OF PERIODS OF INSTRUCTION GIVEN BY THREE GRADES OF INSTRUCTING STAFF

## II. IN STATE INSTITUTIONS

Scale for Number Periods of Class-room Instruction	Under each head below is given the number of institutions which report the number of periods of instruction given per week by professors, assistant professors, and instructors in their respective departments as indicated by scale in first column.																										
	English			Mathematics			Latin			Greek			French			German			History			Philosophy					
	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor
Less than 5 hrs.	1		2							1	1								1						1		
5 to 6 hrs.				1	1					1	1								1						1		
6 " 7 "						1	2		2															1		1	
7 " 8 "	1						1			1				1		1						1					
8 " 9 "	1	1		1						1												1					
9 " 10 "		1	1	1					1				1					1	2		1	3					
10 " 11 "	1	1	1	2			2		1	1	1		1					1		1	1	2	1				
11 " 12 "	5	1	2	1						1									2	2	2						
12 " 13 "	2	3	1	4	1		5	1		4	1		3	1	3	4	1		6	3		4	2				
13 " 14 "	2	1	4	1	1		2	2		2		1	1	2		1			2	1	1	2					
14 " 15 "	1	1	2	2	2	1	1			1	2		4			1	1	2	4	2		1					
15 " 16 "	5	1		3	1	3	2	1	2	2	1		4	3	2	6	3	4	2	1		2					
16 " 17 "	4	1	1		2	1		1		2			2		2	1		1	1								
17 " 18 "	1	2		3				1	1		1	1		1	1	1	1	2	3	1							
18 " 19 "		2	2		3	1	4	1		4	1		2			4			1	1							
19 " 20 "	1			3	3			1			1				1	1		1									
20 " 21 "	3	1	1	4	1	3	6	2		4	1		5		1	6	1	1	2	2		1					
21 " 22 "								1			1		1			1						1					
22 " 23 "																											
23 " 24 "					1	1																					
24 " 25 "				1	1									1			1										
25 " 26 "		1				1							1			1											
Average	13.6	14.5	12.5	14.7	16.2	17.2	14.7	16.7	11.1	14.2	15	11.3	15.3	14.8	15.4	16.5	15.5	15.7	13.2	14.2	10.1	11.8	11.3	5			



## THE SUPPORT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

ACCORDING to the common experience of civilized nations common school education is the duty of the state and should be supported by taxation. With respect to the support of higher education there is no such uniformity of practice. In nearly all states of the Union, however, higher education in some of its phases is also supported by taxation, and in the great majority of the states this support extends to all branches of the higher learning and to the professions. Both in the United States and in Canada this support comes from the state or province. In neither country does the federal government undertake to deal with education.

To this well-settled policy there have been noticeable exceptions in the United States in the appropriations of the proceeds of the sale of public lands to the support of agricultural and mechanical colleges. The administration of such funds, however, is turned over to the various states and the result is practically a gift to the state.

The precedent established by the Morrill Act is constantly invoked in the United States in the effort to obtain further aid from the federal government for local schools of various kinds. The most persistent effort in recent years has been that made in the interest of mining schools and agricultural high schools. If this is successful a similar effort will at once be begun for the establishment of commercial schools. A number of those interested in education in the south have advocated federal help in the establishment of county high schools. This whole effort is a part of the recent movement to turn to the federal government for aid in every possible cause. In my judgment such legislation is contrary to true public policy. There is no more reason why the United States should pay for a mining school in one state than for a commercial school in another. Once this door is open, paternalism of the most demoralizing kind is invited. The problem of education is one for the municipality, the county, and the state to solve. There is no more uncomfortable evidence of the demoralizing effect of government aid than the spectacle of a great and powerful commonwealth applying through its representatives for assistance from the United States government to found and maintain schools for which the state itself is abundantly able to provide. The way to better educational facilities in these states lies along the path already traveled, in the development of local schools, the maintenance of good standards, and, above all, in the development in each state of an enlightened public opinion. This process means the education of a whole state, a process which no free gift can help. There are to my thinking only two groups of our citizenship for whose education a state may with dignity and justice invoke the aid of the United States government—these are the Indians and the negroes. Both of these are in one sense wards of the nation. Neither came into his present position by his own volition. For that situation the country as a whole is responsible. The burden imposed by the ignorance of both of these groups is in a very real sense a na-

tional matter. Here, if anywhere, a state might be justified in asking the coöperation of the whole country in solving the problems of education.

With respect to higher education two radically different plans are in the process of development in the United States, one, that of the university or college supported by tuition and private endowment, the other, the university or college supported by taxation and governed therefore by the state whence its support is drawn. While these two systems of colleges and universities are growing contemporaneously, they are characteristic of different sections of the country. In New England there is but a single state university, while in the west, with few exceptions, the privately endowed institutions are overshadowed by the great state universities. It seems clear that a privately endowed university in a state where higher education is supported by taxation has a somewhat different function from that of a university where this is not the case. Such institutions as the University of Chicago, Leland Stanford Junior University, and Washington University, Saint Louis, standing in states where university education is practically free, have very different obligations to general education from Harvard or Columbia, which do their work in states where university education is not supported by taxation.

The colleges of the older states—New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey—sought and obtained in their beginnings state aid. In the end, however, they abandoned the effort to obtain support from their respective states and decided to depend on tuition fees helped out by the support from private giving. This action was partly the result of denominational effort to control colleges, but the outcome was in the main due to distrust of state control and the political interference which was considered inseparable from it. In addition, the difficulty of securing adequate support from a state seemed at that time far greater than that of securing it from individuals.

The experience of the last two decades has greatly modified this view. It is true that the state universities were launched upon the uncertain sea of political management. But the very circumstances of their life made it necessary to educate the entire state as to the value of education itself and the obligation of a great commonwealth to support higher education generously. Slowly, but none the less surely, the stronger universities in the more progressive states have secured freedom from unwise political interference. The alumni of these institutions now form a most influential part of the citizenship of their states and help to create public opinion.

Furthermore, with the support of a fast developing public opinion, the governing boards of these institutions—chosen for long terms—have shown that it is possible to secure through ordinary political action competent boards for great institutions of learning. The late William F. Vilas, sometime United States Senator from Wisconsin and a member of President Cleveland's Cabinet, rendered for many years conspicuous service as a member of the board of regents of the University of Wisconsin and upon his death left to the university a bequest of a large sum of money, a gift



whose disposition gave evidence of his close and intimate knowledge of educational conditions and of the university's needs.

The most impressive feature, however, of the advance of the tax-supported institutions is the generous support accorded to them by their respective states. Several states now contribute annually a million dollars each to the support of their respective state universities, and in some states the bulk of this income comes in the form of a mill tax which is rendered without action of the legislature and which increases automatically with each revaluation of state property. A million dollars a year is, however, a very modest sum for a great and rich state like Wisconsin, or Illinois, or California to spend on its state university. These institutions may confidently expect incomes far larger than any privately endowed universities can hope to enjoy. It is clear that state support of education in a commonwealth educated to that ideal is the most generous and constant source from which such support can be drawn. The history of institutions like the University of Maine and the Pennsylvania State College shows how quickly the people of even the older states respond to the demands of their state college. It is not to be expected, or desired, that the well-endowed universities and colleges of the New England and of the Middle States will ever seek a closer relation with their state governments, though they are almost sure to cultivate a closer relation to the state system of education. It is not unlikely, however, that other and younger institutions may find in these older states both a wider opportunity and a surer ground of support in some relation to the state government.

There is one feature of state support of education which is worth noting. In the earlier days the state university president was expected to lobby for his annual appropriation. In the better institutions that day has gone by. The state university president goes before committees of the legislature with his budget. He appears there not as a beggar but as a state officer, exactly as the head of a government bureau goes before the committees of appropriations of Congress. He submits to whatever questioning on these estimates the committee desires to make, but having made his statement he will, if he be a wise man, throw the entire responsibility of making or refusing the appropriation asked for upon the legislature. His duty is done when his case is fairly and fully stated. On the whole, this position is a far more dignified one than that of the college president who undertakes to solicit money from individuals.

When one leaves out of consideration the group of well-endowed institutions on private foundation and the group of universities and colleges receiving a generous support from taxation — in all not more than one hundred and twenty-five institutions — it must be confessed that the remaining American colleges obtain a very precarious and uncertain support, pieced out by a system of unremitting appeals to individuals and the public.

Three causes have combined to make college begging in the United States assume a magnitude and an influence on the efficiency and morality of those connected



with education which is unknown elsewhere. These are, first, the multiplication of so-called colleges through denominational, local, or state rivalry; second, the increased cost of college work, due partly to modern laboratory methods and partly to the effort to teach all subjects; third, the example of a few liberal givers to education, whose wide generosity has helped to inspire the belief that any college can get support if it begs efficiently.

Few persons, even among the teachers or officers in the stronger and better supported institutions, appreciate what a factor the solicitation of money has become in the life of many colleges. In some of these the president's chief business is to beg, and he has little time left for any other. When he has secured the promise of fifty thousand dollars on condition that he raise three times as much elsewhere, all other considerations go by the board while this sum is being begged. Three years of such a life has thoroughly demoralized some good colleges. It is interesting to note that some of the denominational colleges in recognition of this tendency have appointed an official college solicitor, who is not the president, thereby giving the latter the opportunity to attend to his legitimate duties.

One very serious outcome of this situation is the tendency to secure a college president on the basis of his ability to get money rather than on the ground of his scholarly and moral fitness. A well-known giver to small colleges wrote to a newly chosen president: "Are you a good beggar? It takes a smart man to get money." The tendency of this whole system is to bring in smart men who can get money rather than scholars and leaders.

The support of many colleges is seriously impaired by the discriminations made in favor of particular classes of students. Most denominational colleges, for example, remit tuition to students who announce their intention to prepare for the ministry and to the children of ministers. Any college president who has had to do with the distribution of trust funds to students realizes how quickly such discriminations affect the point of view of the student body. It is difficult to favor certain classes of students by financial assistance without doing more harm than good, and if there is one man more than another who needs to stand on his own feet it is he who aspires to be a religious leader.

Over and above all this, in a number of colleges in the south and west particularly, college rivalry has led not only to a most undignified solicitation of students, but to a shading of tuition fees to the loss of the college income. A sharp parent, by pitting one college against another, can often secure a large reduction in tuition, if not its entire remission for the first year. The whole process is demoralizing, and there is nothing in American college life comparable with it except that form of college "graft" under which successful athletes are steered into college and university athletic teams.

The financial side of the administration of colleges has perhaps been one of its weakest parts. One reason for this has been the lack of care in the selection of gov-

erning bodies. A large proportion of those who sit on boards of trustees in colleges have no conception of college work, and have shown little readiness or ability in the handling of even its financial responsibilities. In many cases the boards are large and unwieldy, made up of men who have little knowledge of the college and who are wholly unprepared to assume any active part in the financial administration. The so-called "practical business man," when elected to such membership, has rarely taken it seriously and has still more rarely justified the wisdom of his choice. The Foundation expects to publish a bulletin in the course of the coming year describing the form of organization and government of all colleges in the United States and Canada, in the hope that an exhibit of present conditions may lead to a more careful consideration of the organization and personnel of the governing boards. One of the serious difficulties of most colleges is to find in their communities men who are capable of assuming the duties of trustees and who are willing to give the time and effort which ought to go to the performance of such duties. The practice of appointing on such boards prominent men who have neither the experience nor the time to attend to the duties of a trustee is one that ought to disappear. Dummy trustees in a college board are as much out of place as in the board of directors of a life assurance company, and their presence is likely to bring similar results.

That the claims of deserving colleges should be set before the public is evident. That it is a duty of public-spirited men of means to give to such colleges is equally clear. How to seek such aid effectively with dignity and modesty, or how to give it with wisdom, is not so easy a matter. The ordinary intelligent man of wealth has no means of judging between the genuine college, which has a real work to do and which ought to be helped, and the imitation college. As a rule, the man of large means who gives money to a college does so on the solicitation of some friend of the college and on the general assumption that all institutions calling themselves colleges deserve help. The notion that every enterprise which calls itself educational ought to receive the money it asks is quite as far from sound policy as the assumption that every individual who applies for money is entitled to aid. An institution calling itself a college may be a true centre of education, or it may be drawing to its halls students who are receiving stones instead of the bread they would have received, had they gone elsewhere. In the long run, the raising of standards and the gradual education of public opinion will make a discrimination between the college which is needed and the one which is not. Such an educated public opinion will rate the honest and efficient academy above the insincere and superficial college.

Meantime, it is clear that the trustees of every true college should see to it that the college for which they are responsible enters upon a rational and just financial policy, the beginning of which is common business honesty, the sort of honesty which exacts a fair price for its service, furnishes the service it undertakes to provide, and pays its obligations promptly and fully. Such a college will not have one standard of admission in its catalogue and another in its practice, it will not print a tuition



rate and shade it to meet competition, it will not engage its professors at one salary and at the end of the year pay a lower one, it will not advertise high-sounding courses of study to attract students and place the conduct of such courses in the hands of inexperienced boys. Many a college which could pay fair salaries to its teachers and offer a fruitful curriculum to its students is reduced to constant begging by the effort to cover the whole field of human knowledge. Their courses of study remind one forcibly of the bills of fare at the ambitious hotels in small towns where one finds a long and complicated printed menu, but seeks in vain for a simple and wholesome meal. Poor financial management, the unfitness and lack of devotion of trustees, and the habit of dependence on continuous begging are all intimately connected with low college standards and superficiality and inefficiency in education. The student body which lives in an atmosphere of continual begging is unfortunate.

### THE ORGANIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

ALL associations of men which seek to deal with social, intellectual, and spiritual forces live and move and have their being between the tendency to over-organization on the one hand and the lack of effective organization on the other. It is clear that organization must play in such associations a somewhat different rôle from that which it fills in certain other agencies, such as those of business, for example. As we study the history of churches and of parties, we are often impressed with the fact that the period of their greatest efficiency as moral and social agencies came in the days before organization had run away with the living causes which gave them birth. Schools, colleges, and universities, like churches and parties, are simply human organizations seeking to deal with spiritual and intellectual forces. They—no less than religious and political organizations—stand in danger of the narrowness and rigidity which come from formal administration. Human nature is quite the same whether one considers priests, politicians, or pedagogues. In each species of institution organization tends to run away with the deeper underlying purpose which gave it birth. Devotion to church is confused with religion, devotion to party with statesmanship, devotion to educational routine takes the place of true teaching.

Nevertheless, in great continuing movements, such as the education of a people, organization is indispensable. In no other way can continuity and efficiency be had. Not only is this true, but organization which is wise, which respects fundamental tendencies and forces, which separates incongruous phases of activity, may not only add to the efficiency of a national educational effort, but may offer a larger measure of freedom than can be hoped for in chaotic and unrelated efforts to accomplish the same ends. Isolation and lack of coöperation are no less deadening than unthinking obedience to established routine. The practical problem in a civilized nation is to establish such an educational organization as will secure relation between the differ-



ent kinds of schools, while at the same time preserving a fair degree of freedom of action and of development.

This conception of an educational system has come as the result of many centuries of evolution. In the older European countries schools of one kind and another began, developed, and were gradually related the one to the other in a common educational system. In the most advanced European states, as, for example, those of the German Empire, the national system of education aims to deal with the individual citizen from the time of his first entrance into a school up to the completion of his vocational or professional training. While these schools have relation to each other, the accepted system of education recognizes certain clear divisions corresponding to distinctive periods in the life of the child or of the youth. The schools which are intended to correspond to these periods articulate, they do not overlap. The system of education consists, therefore, of a continuous series of schools from the lowest to the highest, and a school of given name does practically the same work in all parts of the kingdom.

In the United States we are younger. The pioneer stage of national development is so near to us in time that many of its habits still rule in social and political matters. This is particularly true in education. We can scarcely claim as yet to have a system, at least in higher education; or, if there is the beginning of a system, the discords in it are more striking than the agreements.

To illustrate: the college is our oldest school of higher learning. In the United States to-day there are nearly one thousand institutions which call themselves colleges. The work offered by these institutions varies from that of a true college, articulating with the standard high school and offering four years of fruitful study, to institutions so low in grade that their courses of study do not equal those of a good high school.

This confusion is the result of a number of causes among which, especially significant, are the newness of our educational development, the lack of any intelligent supervision of higher education, and the tendency of colleges in the past to remain isolated schools unrelated to the general system of education. The first of these is a perfectly natural phase of our extraordinary national and industrial growth. Our institutions of learning have grown up under the most diverse conditions. The astonishing thing is that they have grown in such numbers. The essential point to recognize to-day is that the pioneer days are over, and that the problem before us now is not the building of more colleges, but the strengthening of those which exist and the bringing of some measure of educational unity into our whole system of education.

The absence in nearly all states of the Union of any form of supervision over higher education is a singular feature of our educational history. The University of the State of New York (which is a board, not a teaching institution) represents almost the only effective agency in any state in the Union which has the power to supervise or even to criticize institutions devoted to higher education and to professional training. In the state of New York the term *college* has a definite meaning, and an

institution, whether for academic or professional training, must, before it can confer degrees, comply with certain standards and must have certain facilities for education. In most states of the Union, at least until very recently, any body of men who chose to do so for any purpose whatever could incorporate under the general laws and organize what they called a college, a medical school, or a law school, to be conducted according to their own standards or ambitions and without any relation to the general system of education. Under these conditions, denominational, professional, local, and personal rivalries have led to the establishment of more so-called colleges and professional schools than the country can possibly support. These may legally confer all the degrees of higher learning which the strongest and most scrupulous college can offer—a right they are not slow to make use of. The District of Columbia has been prolific in paper colleges which scatter degrees far and wide, the distribution beginning usually with the members of their own faculties. Among the colleges chartered by the state of Maryland in about 1900 is the “Medico-Chirurgical and Theological College of Christ’s Institution.” The charter gave the school the right to grant all kinds of degrees, and it is needless to say that the organizers a few weeks later were able to attach to their names many academic titles. The fifth annual catalogue contained the following on its first page: “Fifth Annual Announcement and Catalogue, edited by the Rev. Dr. P. Thomas Stanford, A.M., M.D., D.D., LL.D., Ph.D., Vice-President.”

The absence of any rational supervision or even of any provision for fair criticism or review of our higher institutions of learning is in part due to the attitude of the colleges themselves. In the past even the older and stronger colleges have been disposed to resent any official inquiry into their organization or into their methods of conduct. College professors have been not a little inclined to look down on those who supervised state schools. Such positions have been considered inferior in importance to that of a college president or professor. This is partly due to the political prestige (using that term in a large sense) which the college president enjoys in the support of a large constituency. The superintendent of education has at his back no great body of alumni and students. He is not in the public eye in the same way as the college president. Nevertheless these places are of the highest educational value and they should be made worthy of the best men. What college president has done for education in America what Horace Mann did for it? Furthermore, the good college has everything to gain by a scrutiny of higher education if carried out by able men under a system free of political interference. The time has come when in all states those who stand for sincerity in education should demand the passage of laws safeguarding the degree-giving power and providing an agency for the expert oversight of higher education as well as of elementary and secondary education. Universities and colleges are to all intents educational trusts. They have the same advantages to gain from fair and wise oversight on the part of the state as other trusts have to gain from such oversight.



Underlying all other causes which tend to confusion in higher education is the fundamental one that American colleges have been in the past conducted as separate units, not as factors in a general educational system. Devotion to education has meant generally devotion to the fortunes of a single institution. There has been little effort to coördinate colleges with other institutions of higher learning or with the general system of education. To the want of a general educational consciousness more than to any other cause is due the confusion which to-day reigns amongst our higher institutions of learning.

It seems clear that the work of the next two decades in American education is to be a work of educational reorganization, and this reorganization must include elementary and secondary education as well as higher education, for the problem of national education is really one problem, not a series of isolated and unrelated problems. To-day our schools, from the elementary school to the university, are inefficient, superficial, lacking expert supervision. They are disjointed members of what ought to be a consistent system. The work of reorganization is so enormous that one is almost at a loss to answer the practical question: Where should such organization begin? The answer to this question must come in the end from the intelligent leadership of teachers themselves, and from the coöperation of teachers in all parts of our system of national education. I venture to point out certain considerations which seem to me to be essential as forming the groundwork from which improvement and progress must proceed.

It is, I believe, admitted by those who are most familiar with the conditions of schools throughout the United States that the weakness and inefficiency of the elementary and secondary schools, arising in the first place from lack of clear conceptions of what these schools should actually seek to do, are apparent, first, in the effort to teach too many things and, second, in the lack of competent teachers. In other words, the elementary and secondary schools, like the institutions of higher learning, have attempted too many subjects to the neglect of the fundamental intellectual training common to all education. The remedy is to be found in clearer definitions of purpose, variation of school types, and more simple and thorough curricula. We cannot teach all subjects in one school, but we can provide a wide variety of schools, each of which may do its own work thoroughly.

It is clear that the lack of efficient teaching is one of the most expensive national weaknesses, and that the inefficiency of our school system is in great measure due to this lack is evident. For example, mathematics is a subject which has been a standard study in our schools from the beginning. Students who pass through our high schools and enter college spend in the nine years corresponding to the period covered by the German *gymnasium*, seventy-five per cent more of the time of instruction on mathematics and yet receive a training vastly inferior to that of the *gymnasium*.

Progress has been made in the last two years toward equipping a larger number of



competent teachers. The growth of teachers' colleges in connection with the universities is a most notable gain. Before the matter can be rightly solved, public opinion must be educated to appreciate the dignity and importance of the teacher's work and the absolute necessity for such strengthening of the security and recompense of the teacher as will attract to that calling able men and women in larger numbers.

It is clear also that the elementary and secondary system of education must in its reorganization meet the present-day demand for industrial training. Our public school system did not undertake originally vocational training. In the modern industrial state that training is a part of public education, and one very serious problem to be met in the reorganization of education is the provision for vocational schools and their relation to the elementary school system.

It is not possible at this day to outline a complete system of such schools. Clearly the vocational school will vary with the locality and will minister to local conditions. The experience of other nations would, however, seem to indicate that elementary schools will continue to be devoted to the general education of children up to the age of fourteen years, but that its last two years will see the introduction of certain industrial exercises and studies. The vocational schools, resting on the elementary schools, are likely to be two-year, and in some cases three-year, high schools. The high school, devoted to general training, is under such conditions likely also to tend toward a similar length of curriculum. In a word, the curriculum and the length of time spent in the high school would be materially modified by an increased efficiency in the lower schools and by the effort to meet the demands of vocational training.

These transformations in the lower schools, which time is sure to bring, demand the earnest attention of those engaged in higher education.

The method of transfer from the secondary school to the college is one of primary importance. It is generally admitted that at present neither admission by certificate nor by examination is serving education or the interests of students effectively.

Admission by certificate is necessarily a very indefinite thing in the absence of a rigid and impartial supervision of secondary schools. One great source of weakness in American schools would be removed by the adoption of the plan generally in use in foreign schools and in Canada, under which the examinations for promotion from one grade to the next are conducted by the supervisor of education, not by the teacher. The pressure brought upon teachers to promote ill-prepared pupils is thereby eliminated, and this pressure is a fruitful source of demoralization in American public schools.

Admission to college by examination has unquestionably served a useful purpose in American education, but it has also tended to make admission to college assume the form of doing certain "stunts" rather than the attainment of a certain grade of intellectual culture. Its effect upon the secondary schools has been most disastrous from the standpoint of true education.

This result has no doubt been partly due to the attempt to recognize a large va-

riety of subjects as college entrance requirements. Under such a régime a boy is naturally inclined to glean a point for admission wherever it can most easily be picked up. This tendency, coupled with the low passing mark accepted for admission, has worked for increased superficiality in the preparation of boys entering college. As a result in the colleges admitting by examination only, a majority of the students enter with conditions.

The question of the right coördination of the college with the secondary school is one which should have at this time the most earnest consideration on the part of teachers both in the college and in the secondary school. The first practical step would seem to be to secure uniformity in this matter throughout the country. For this reason the Carnegie Foundation has adopted a definition of the college which involves the placing of the college upon the standard four-year high school. Great progress is being made throughout the whole country toward uniformity in this matter. Once this is attained the question whether the dividing point between college and high school should be changed can be effectively taken up, and this question is one which is immediately involved in the consideration of any plan of national education.

Within the last three decades the field of the high school has been so enlarged that its final two years cover to-day the studies formerly given in the first two years of college. This has not been accomplished by an increase of efficiency in the lower grades. The boy who formerly entered college at sixteen now enters at eighteen.

The whole subject of administration of higher education, no less than the determination of the functions of the college itself and its future, are contained in the inquiry whether the boy shall enter college at sixteen or at eighteen.

Is our system of higher education to consist of a secondary school surmounted by the college, and this in turn surmounted by the university with its graduate and professional schools? Then assuredly the college must deliver students to the university at an earlier age than twenty-two and a half years, which is the present practice. The German boy enters the university to-day from the *gymnasium* fully two years younger than the American boy enters the American university from the college. No nation will endure so serious a handicap as this organization of education would involve.

Just what function does the college, which is our most distinctive institution, fill? Is it a school for youths where both discipline and freedom are to play a part, a school in which the youth is brought out of the tutelage of the boy into the freedom of the man; or is it a school for men in which they choose as they will the studies and the pleasures of college life? If the first ideal is that which is to form the college, then the college years may well be those between sixteen and twenty; if the latter, eighteen is full young for such unrestricted freedom.

It seems clear that those who deal with American education must choose between these two distinctive conceptions of what the college is to be. If the first conception is to become general, then we may justly impose the university on the college, form-



ing a consistent system of higher education and ensuring the permanent preservation of the American college. If the latter conception of the college is to prevail, either two years must be gained in preparatory education or else the college must become as it is now tending to become, a sort of parallel to the university, a school for the few and not for the many.

I venture to add that the needs of elementary education, the demands for industrial training, the claims of the professional schools, and the economic necessities of the situation all seem to point to a solution of an educational organization in which the college would deliver its students to the university or to business life at twenty rather than at twenty-two.

Finally, those who have to deal with education and with its organization must make clear the distinction between college and university. Economic considerations no less than educational efficiency demand that the present confusion should be cleared.

I question whether we have yet realized the effect of this confusion upon the American college in the transformation of teaching and of teachers. The old-time college teacher was a man who had above all else intellectual enthusiasm and intellectual sympathy; his learning touched many fields and all with a sympathetic and friendly spirit, and his work consisted largely of bringing into the lives and into the intellectual appreciation of his students his own sense of learning and of civilization and of social relations. For this work there was needed not primarily a man of research, but a man of large comprehension, of wide interests, of keen sympathies, and of discriminating touch. We seldom choose teachers to-day on such grounds. The primary requisite is that the teacher shall be a man of research, that he shall have indicated in some special direction his ability to advance human knowledge, or at least his readiness to make that attempt. When we choose a teacher on this basis alone, we surrender the essential reason for which the college exists, for if the college is to serve as a place for the development of character, for the blossoming of the human spirit and of the human intellect, it will become this only under the leadership of men who have in their own lives shown the fruitage of such development, who have themselves broad sympathies and quick appreciations.

I am the last man to wish the spirit of research dulled. We need in our universities above all else the nurture of this spirit. What I wish to emphasize is this: the college and the university stand for essentially different purposes. These distinctions are almost lost sight of in the confusion of our educational organization. Research is a word to conjure with, but in the last two decades more sins have been committed in its name against good teaching than we are likely to atone for in the next generation. We must, if we are to retain the college as a place for general culture and the university as a place for the promotion of scholarly research and for professional training, honor the college teacher for his own work's sake, and honor no less the investigator in his own field. These two fields overlap; but in the college the primary function is one thing, in the institution for research another.



Let me add one other word in this connection. If we will seriously undertake to discriminate between good teaching and poor teaching, we shall get far on the way to distinguish between true scientific research and its imitation, an inquiry which will be as greatly to the advantage of our graduate schools and universities as the first can be to our colleges. In both college and university we need to turn our faces resolutely toward simplicity, sincerity, thoroughness; to get a clear conception of what we are undertaking and to call institutions of learning by their true names.

## STANDARDS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

LIKE other branches of education, the training of men for the learned professions has not yet outgrown the pioneer stage. The absence of any great city of overshadowing influence has prevented the formation of a school for lawyers such as the Inns of Court. The law schools began in groups of students gathering about a particular lawyer or group of lawyers. These ventures have generally been of local influence. The most famous was the school founded by Tapping Reeve at Litchfield, Connecticut, shortly after the revolution, which had an existence of more than a half century.

In a similar way schools of medicine have been formed by groups of physicians in different cities.

These schools of law and of medicine had, up to recent years, no common standards and no relation to the general system of education. The quality of the instruction varied in all possible ways. The length of time required for graduation ran from two short terms to three or four years.

The last twenty years have seen a great improvement in these conditions, notwithstanding the fact that much remains to be done. The tendency has been to make the school of law and of medicine a department of a university, subject to the government of the same authorities as supervise other branches of learning. The effect of this change is to remove commercialism, to raise standards, and to give unity to the cause of professional training. The advance is due in large measure to the associations of lawyers and of physicians, who have not been slow to realize that ultimately right standards of professional training and continuity of administration, together with security of support, could be attained only by grounding the training in these professions upon the general system of education and by removing from the schools of law and of medicine the suggestion of personal gain or control. It is clear that for the future the school of law or of medicine which is to endure must be part of a university, and this notwithstanding the fact that certain colleges and universities have used their degree-conferring powers to shelter superfluous and low-grade medical schools.

The examinations for license to practice in both of these professions are still quite low in standard in many states. Legislation in this respect in the state of New York is far in advance of that in most of the states of the Union. This is due to the fact that all education in New York is under the supervision of a competent department of education, which has one examination for all candidates for the practice of medicine, regardless of the school or sect to which they belong.

The action of the more progressive members of these two professions, as expressed in their associations, is in the direction of better standards and more efficient laws. The practice of medicine offers peculiar opportunities to the unscrupulous. The ab-

sence of any competent expert supervision in most states has made it possible for incompetent physicians to prey upon the public. This has been rendered all the more easy by the warring medical sects. The harm of sectarian medicine is not so much in its sectarianism as in its effort to secure special standards, which are invariably below those of a properly qualified physician. Given a well-educated man, thoroughly grounded in the fundamental sciences of physiology, anatomy, biology, chemistry, and the like, he will be a competent practitioner of medicine, whether graduated from one school or another. But the universal cover under which incompetence and fraud hide is low standards. If a medical school will maintain sound standards, both of entrance and of instruction, there can be no objection to admitting its graduates to practice, whether the school call itself allopathic, homeopathic, eclectic, osteopathic, or after some other medical sect. The public interest is effectively safeguarded only by the enforcement of high standards of medical education.

The school of theology has had in this country a somewhat different history from that of either the law school or the medical school. Like medicine, theology is primarily a science,—the science of religion. The schools of theology would therefore be fundamentally intended both for the training of a body of practitioners and for a much smaller body of investigators, just as the schools of medicine prepare a large number of practitioners, and a much smaller body of medical men of research. Schools of theology in America have been at a disadvantage as compared with schools of medicine from at least three causes: first, the greater multiplicity of sects; second, the absence of any scrutiny from an outside agency; and finally, and perhaps most important of all, the low standards of admission to the ministry.

As a result of these influences theological schools are in many cases simply denominational fitting schools with a limited efficiency as training places for religious practitioners or for theological investigators. Under this arrangement, theology, which has most need of association with other sciences, has been shyest of any intimacy with them.

Evidences are not wanting that those at the head of the stronger theological schools are seeking to meet this deficiency, and to develop institutions which shall hold up high standards of reverence, of religious efficiency, and of scholarship. For the great body of those who undertake the ministry the standards are, however, certainly as low as are those of medicine, and are as greatly in need of reform.

Beside the three old and established professions of the lawyer, the physician, and the preacher, a group of new technical professions has in recent years been added to the learned professions. The status of these technical callings is as yet not so well settled as are those of the three older professions. For the present, therefore, I have endeavored to make such examination as is possible concerning the status of education of candidates desiring to enter the practice of the law, of medicine, and of the ministry.

The preliminary step to any conclusions respecting education in these professions



is the knowledge of the present status of education in these professions. This task alone is no small one. It cannot be fully carried out without expert aid, and no far-reaching conclusions as to the needs of professional education can be reached without the consideration of those who are best qualified to judge. It is my hope to present ultimately a complete report with regard to educational organization as it is related to professional education.

### THE INTEREST OF THE PUBLIC IN HIGH STANDARDS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

A NOTABLE characteristic of human nature, whether among educated or uneducated men, is the universal reaching out after a specific. In theology, in medicine, in education, we are constantly seeking for specific creeds, specific cures, specific means of education, and intellectual cleverness is no protection against the vagaries of human nature. Growing out of our universal craving for a specific is the almost equally widespread tendency to accept the man or the association of men who undertake to furnish specifics, whether these be of faith or of practice.

Now the facts of our universal human experience go to show that there are few specifics in the settlement of questions which involve moral, intellectual, and physical forces. Even in the diagnosis of the simpler forms of human illness many factors enter. There are few diseases which are unmistakable, and for only a few of these have we specific remedies, and the efficacy of these is a function of the time and the manner of application. For intelligent treatment of the great number of such diseases we must depend on the honesty, the intelligence, and especially on the training and experience of the medical practitioners whom we consult. For this training all practitioners, whether of one school or another, are dependent on their knowledge of certain fundamental sciences,—physiology, anatomy, pathology, and the like. In fact, the practice of medicine is nothing else than the application of these fundamental sciences, just as the practice of electrical engineering is simply applied physics, mathematics, and mechanics. The general public cannot possibly differentiate between the various medical sects. The ordinary, busy, intelligent man has no opinion which is of any value as between allopaths, homeopaths, or eclectics, for example. The only possible protection he can secure is to insist that the man licensed to practice shall be first of all a well-educated man, and secondly, that he shall have been thoroughly grounded in the fundamental sciences upon which all medical practice depends. The only defense which he can hope to secure against the incompetent or fraudulent practitioner of medicine is to obtain such legal regulation of medical licensing and such expert scrutiny of medical education and the admission to practice as will guarantee the thorough preparation of authorized practitioners in the science of the day. The quack would gladly practice in accordance with the latest

discoveries of science if he only knew them. The rights and the interests of the public can be conserved only by requiring all candidates for practice — whether they be allopaths, homeopaths, eclectics, osteopaths, Christian Scientists, or faith healers — to show evidence of a thorough grounding in these fundamental sciences before being permitted to practice.

Not only has the public been slow to appreciate the fact that its interests and its safety depend on high standards of medical education, but it has generally been hostile to the reforms which the representatives of the leading medical societies have endeavored to bring about. The sympathy of the public has gone usually to the men who desire to practice medicine by the light of nature or, at best, with a most superficial preparation in the fundamental sciences which underlie medical practice. It is this attitude of the public which makes the practice of medicine the easiest field for the charlatan and the quack to enter.

An interesting feature of the legislation in this matter is the light thrown upon the commercial value in the United States of the professional title doctor in the practice of medicine. Experience shows that the public will accept the most incompetent practitioner who can legally affix the title of doctor to his name, whether it be gained in one medical sect or another, while it will not accept practice from an individual not equipped with that title. For example, the osteopaths have not been able to secure practice in those states where they are unable to use a medical degree. Now the man who undertakes to practice medicine under the name of osteopathy has exactly the same diseases to diagnose and to treat as other physicians have. He has exactly the same need for a training in the fundamental medical sciences. If, after he has taken such a training, he desires to call himself a doctor of osteopathy he has every right to use that title, and the public can have no more objection to it than it can to the fact that one trained theologian chooses to call himself a Methodist and another a Unitarian, while both undertake to teach and to practice the same religion.

The only possible protection and assurance which the public can have is to insist upon this fundamental training as a preliminary to any practice, and it may rightly suspect the motives of any set of would-be practitioners who undertake to evade these reasonable requirements—necessary alike in the interests of the public and of the profession of medicine. With respect to the practice of law, the public interest is dependent likewise on the enforcement of high professional standards. The practitioner of law does not deal so directly with the personal well-being of every citizen as does the physician, but no other profession is so closely related to the development of justice and to the progress of sound public policy. There is no way by which the public can tell whether the practitioner of law will develop into a wise advocate or into a sharp attorney. The only criterion it can impose for its own protection is to require such training for entrance to the profession as will fit the ordinary man for good work in it and will at the same time serve as a means to exclude the unfit.

Not only does the public find its sole protection in uniform requirements of high



standards for entrance into these professions, but the tolerance by the public of low standards means the maintenance of an open door for the benefit not of the deserving, but of the unfit. The practice of medicine and of the law is overrun to-day by a horde of those seeking to earn in these callings a means of living, who under a more just system of educational standards would be rendering to their communities a real service in some productive calling. It should be borne in mind that neither of these professions contributes to the productive wealth of society, and a man is of value to the world in them only when his ability is such that he contributes something over and above the amount represented by his fees. There are to-day more men in both of these professions than the country needs, and yet there are certainly, in the judgment of competent medical authorities, not enough competent medical practitioners to do the work of the country. Omitting for the time the dishonest quack in medicine and the unscrupulous attorney, it is still true that a large proportion of those in these professions ought to be earning a living in other callings where they would render a return to society by contributing to the productive energy of the world. The evils of the present over-production of ill-trained physicians and lawyers is perhaps more strikingly manifest in the small towns than elsewhere. In almost any town of five hundred families one can find a half dozen physicians and as many lawyers struggling for a living, when at the most two competent men in each profession could do the work of the community. Lawyers under such conditions spend their time in the exploitation of petty causes or in efforts to secure office. Physicians in such circumstances minister in large measure to chronic invalids, while the great cause of right sanitation and public health of the community is left absolutely untouched. Low educational standards are not only an injustice to the public on its own account, they are absolutely demoralizing to the profession. They serve to lay in the path of ill-trained and weak men temptations for which they are wholly unprepared, and the fruits of this mistake the public reaps.

The public is not less interested in right educational standards for the other great historic profession,—the ministry. Low standards of admission have worked in this great calling exactly the same consequences as one finds in the practice of law and of medicine. The demoralization due to low educational standards is in truth even more evident here than in the other two great professions generally associated with that of the ministry. This last is due to several causes. The most evident is the fact that the profession of the preacher has not kept pace with the enormous advance in popular education. A hundred years ago ministers were the educated men of their communities and their power was in proportion. In the interval the congregations have risen enormously in the scale of general education. With this rise the law and medicine have to a considerable extent kept pace. The ministry has relatively retrograded. The standards of admission to it have not kept pace with the general progress.

Another disadvantage under which the ministry has labored is the burden of sectarianism, the most common form of devotion to specifics which the world has known.



In this respect the profession of the preacher resembles somewhat that of the medical practitioner, with the difference that the medical sects are fewer in number. Essentially, however, sectarianism in theology and sectarianism in medicine rest on an analogous basis. In medicine the practitioner depends on the same fundamental sciences, and the same body of medical knowledge is open to him whether he calls himself a homeopath or an eclectic. In a similar way one minister may be called a Baptist and another a Roman Catholic. Yet each undertakes to teach the same religion out of the same Bible. The medical sects have made one enormous advance over religious sects. The better representatives of all medical sects have gathered themselves into one society for the betterment of their common standards,—a thing which is scarcely to be hoped for in the near future among religious sects.

Much has been said in recent years of the decay of churches, and the weakening of church ties particularly amongst Protestants. Many explanations have been given of this tendency. No doubt many factors have a share in the result which we see. Amongst these one of the most evident is the inefficiency of the ministry, due in the main to low standards of admission. In the Protestant churches, where the power of authority has largely passed by, the work of the church depends on the quality of the religious leadership of its preachers. The efficiency of this leadership is low. In the small towns one finds the same conditions as exist among lawyers and physicians. Four or five ministers eke out a living where one or two at most could do the work efficiently. Like the doctors of their villages, these men concern themselves with chronic cases and specific remedies, while the great problems of the moral health of their communities go untouched.

The old mother church has pursued a more far-sighted policy in this matter than the majority of her daughters. She requires of all her priests a long and severe training. However one may criticize the kind of education which they receive, or the large factor of loyalty to the ecclesiastical organization which forms part of it, the wisdom of the requirement is unquestionable. To it is due in very large measure the enormous moral power of the Roman Catholic Church throughout the world, particularly among the great masses of working people in the cities, where Protestantism has been so markedly ineffective, partly, at least, because of defects that an adequate modern education would go far toward remedying.

The Protestant ministry faces to-day a most serious economic difficulty. The low standards of admission coupled with the multiplication of sects and church buildings have brought into the profession of the minister a large number of ill-trained men, and have at the same time brought down the financial recompense of the minister to a very low basis,—the basis, indeed, of the inefficient man. However indispensable is the altruistic motive in the life of the preacher or of the teacher, neither preaching nor teaching can be considered independent of their economic relations in the social order unless the solution of the Roman Catholic Church is accepted, under which preachers are celibate priests and draw their support from the church. So long as

preachers are to marry and bring up families and assume a place in the social life of their communities, so long will the efficiency of the preacher have a direct relation to the quality of his financial support. The poverty of this support at this time, its uncertainty, the uncomfortable attitude of begging for oneself which many preachers have to assume, particularly in small communities, all operate powerfully to turn away able and serious men from this profession. A community which would support in comfort and dignity two able religious leaders will pay a bare living to five denominational preachers. And it is quite as true in the ministry as in any other profession that, taken by and large, one decently paid man is worth many ill-paid and inefficient men. It is impossible to estimate how much the cause of religious progress is delayed by the fact that a great proportion of the men who assume, as representatives of the Christian denominations, to take the place of religious leaders are unprepared for such leadership, are untrained in the fundamentals of theology, in the elements of learning, in knowledge of mankind, in the interpretation of life from the religious rather than from the denominational standpoint. Meagre as are the salaries paid, they are in many cases equal to the service rendered. In this situation the public is profoundly interested.

The public can form no sound conclusion whether a Methodist or a Baptist is likely to be the more efficient religious leader, any more than it can determine whether a homeopath or an allopath is the more likely to be an efficient practitioner of medicine. Of one thing only it can be sure, and that is that whether a man undertake to lead in one religious organization or another, he ought to have grounded himself in the fundamental studies which lie at the basis of all religious teaching, of all intellectual and spiritual leadership. Training counts for as much here as in any other human relation.

The raising of the efficiency of the profession of the ministry rests largely in the hands of preachers themselves, just as the raising of the profession of the law rests with lawyers, and the raising of the profession of medicine rests with physicians. That the effort presents for any particular Christian organization serious social, administrative, and economic difficulties cannot be denied. That the advancement of religious influence in the lives of men rests in large measure on this effort seems equally clear.

## THE BUSINESS OF LAW AND OF MEDICINE

### *VERSUS*

## THE PROFESSION OF LAW AND OF MEDICINE

The sympathy of the great mass of men is fairly sure to go out almost spontaneously to the individuals in whose path artificial restrictions are set up. It has been the boast of our democracy that America was the land of equal opportunity to all, and the sentiment finds response in the breast of every right-thinking man.



It is doubtless out of this feeling that the opposition to the erection of reasonable standards of entrance to the learned professions has arisen. Like many popular sentiments which are fundamentally right, the transformation of the sentiment into practice has been made in a short-sighted way. It has operated to give the ill-prepared and unfit member of society an advantage at the expense of the community. No man is born with the right to enter one of these professions any more than he is born with the right of suffrage. Both rights are conferred by the sovereign people upon prescribed conditions. The difficulty is that it is always more easy to excite popular sympathy for the individual complainant, however unworthy, than for the sovereign people, which seldom complains, no matter how far its interests are invaded. The notion that any man who wants to practice medicine ought to be allowed to try, and that any preacher who thinks he has a call ought to preach regardless of training, belongs to the pioneer stage of civilization.

By long usage of civilized nations the professions of the law and of medicine have received certain recognized standing. The practice of these professions carries with it certain privileges and advantages and should carry certain responsibilities. To require that those who are authorized to practice these professions should comply with reasonable conditions of preparation is not only a duty to the state, but is absolutely just to the individual. The difficulty has come in determining what are reasonable requirements for preparation in the practice of the law and of medicine, requirements that shall protect the interests of the public and still not inflict undue hardships upon the individual. It is in the settlement of this question that the practical difficulties arise. Great pressure is brought by those who desire to enter these professions to make the standards of admission as low as possible, and wherever the effort is made to constitute such standards as will safeguard the public and preserve the character of the profession, the cry is set up that the poor and struggling candidate for a profession is discriminated against. This argument is always illustrated by the example of a few great men who have achieved success in one or the other of these professions without the advantage of formal education. The argument is fallacious and is generally dishonestly made.

What are reasonable conditions to require of candidates for these professions? Manifestly it would be an unfair discrimination against the candidate for medical practice to require him to belong to a certain medical sect or to graduate from a given school, but it is equally manifest that it is not only fair but absolutely essential that he should be grounded in anatomy and physiology and kindred fundamental sciences upon which all practice of medicine rests. It is conceivable that a man might get this knowledge and this practice in some other way than by the aid of the medical school and the hospital, and if he could show his knowledge and his skill by a competent examination he should be allowed to do so. Such cases, however, must be very rare. The candidate who is seeking to enter the profession by some other path than the hard and exacting path of a good medical school and hospital is in nearly every case



seeking to get his knowledge by practicing on the public and being paid for learning. Similarly the candidate for the profession of the law ought to have something more than a superficial knowledge of the practice of the courts of his community. He should at least have some knowledge of the history of jurisprudence, of the underlying principles of law and of legal processes, some conception of the administration of justice, some study of the relations of equity to technique. Plainly, the least that can be required of a candidate for these professions is a fair grounding in the fundamental science of our day and a measure of participation in the actual application of that science in the practice. Most intelligent men will concede so much, but are not always ready to admit the further requirement that the candidate in law or in medicine must present also the evidence of a good general education, such, for example, as can be gained by a college course of not less than two years' duration. That this condition is essential to the maintenance of the character of the profession and that it forms the only effective means of sifting out the worthy from the unworthy, the fit from the unfit, is the conviction of those who have given the matter most thought. Without exception the professional schools of low grade, poor courses, and sham examinations are those which admit students without the preparation of a general education.

Not only is the requirement of a good general education justified on the practical ground that thus only can capable men be commonly obtained, but it is absolutely essential in the maintenance of the professions themselves. To become a good lawyer or physician, it is not enough to know the mere technique of practice. Such a man should be also a student of his race and of its history, with sympathies fully developed by a contact with life and with books. The reason for this and the justification for its requirement lie in the fact that these callings are professions, and such qualities are necessary in the members of a profession. This distinction is fundamental and one which in late years we have been as a nation disposed to forget.

Aside from all question of intellectual basis or content, the distinction between a business and a profession does not lie in any difference of honor in the pursuit of one or of another, but in the obligations which one assumes. However honorable a business calling may be, the man who enters it makes no pretense of any other intention than the honest pursuit of his own gain. He who enters a profession likewise does so for his own advantage, but he also undertakes certain obligations to the calling itself and to the public. He is under obligation to consider the interest of the public as well as his own, and this is one reason why these great callings have differentiated into professions—because those who practice them accept the obligation to the calling. Bacon has expressed the idea in the introduction to *The Maxims of the Law* in the phrase, "I hold every man a debtor to his profession." It is the acknowledgment of this debt and the effort to pay it which differentiate a profession from a business. That debt devolves upon him who enters one of these great professions the obligation to fit himself for it, the obligation to conserve the honor and advance

the cause of his profession, and above all to remember in his practice his duty to the state as well as to himself. It is only through the observance of these ideals that a profession can remain a profession.

Those who have studied the tendencies of this nation since the close of our civil war have had reason to feel alarm over the diminishing respect for law. As a people we regard the law lightly, and our habits in this matter are growing worse rather than better. Many factors have conjoined to bring about this state of affairs, but one of the most important lies at the door of those who profess the law. Legal process in our nation is slow and costly. Justice is hard to get. The great mass of the people believe, with greater or less reason, that in reaching decisions, legal technicalities obscure equity. The evolution of the legal process has resembled that of our national game of baseball which has become a pitcher's game. The administration of law presents to the general public more and more the spectacle of a game in which the expert high-priced attorney outplays judge and jury. Lawyers of the highest eminence and of irreproachable private life have served interests which were plainly against public policy and in violation of the interests of the public. There has seemed to be no limit beyond which a lawyer might not go in the service of a client who employed him to circumvent, not to uphold, the law. Such men have been unmindful of the debt to their profession; they are in the business of law, not in the profession of law. The ideals of the profession have been lowered by the great mass of men who have taken up the law as a business.

The profession of medicine in our country has suffered in a similar way. Any one familiar with the medical practice of such a country as Germany, for example, must have been struck with the difference in the attitude of the German and of the American physician to his profession. A large proportion of German practitioners devote part of their time to research. They accept the ideal that a man must better his profession. They decline to give up their whole time to paid practice. The number of American physicians who take this position is small, indeed, and they are apt to be looked down upon by their colleagues. The great mass of American physicians, however skilful in the practice, are in the business of medicine.

The low terms of admission to great callings are partly responsible for these conditions. So long as the door stands open to the poorly educated, the ill-prepared, and the morally weak candidates, so long will the calling be pulled down beneath the level of a true profession. There is no way by which the public can assure itself that every man who enters either of these professions ought to do so. But it can at least exclude the manifestly unfit by the just requirement of a fair general education and proof of a knowledge of the fundamental sciences upon which the profession rests. Thus both public interest and the integrity of the professions may be conserved. The question whether law is to be a business or a profession is a critical one in determining the stability of popular government.



## DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS IN EDUCATION

THE public has long been familiar with state supervision and inspection of schools in the United States, at least so far as elementary and secondary education is concerned. We have no supervision of higher education, except in the case of the state of New York. Such supervision as exists is, however, confined almost exclusively to the tax-supported schools. There is no scrutiny of private schools to ascertain what standards are maintained or the relation of such schools to the general system of education.

Thus has arisen the great multiplication of colleges calling for support and competing, in many cases, with each other for students in a manner demoralizing to teachers and pupils. The exigencies of this situation are in part responsible for the creation of the various denominational boards of education. It was clear that if a religious body was to support colleges, and colleges in many states, some central educational authority would tend not only to lessen useless competition, but also to increase unity and efficiency. We find, therefore, a number of such organizations to-day exercising wide influence over large areas, dealing with secondary as well as with higher education.

With these boards of education the officers of the Carnegie Foundation have had cordial and interesting relations. Notwithstanding the fact that the Foundation is estopped from the granting of retiring allowances in colleges controlled by a denomination, it nevertheless found common ground with these organizations in the consideration of education from a general rather than from a local point of view. Furthermore, there exists the greatest latitude in the relations which the colleges under these boards hold to the churches to which they are assigned,—a relation varying from actual control to one of tradition only.

Those who are studying the general progress of education are naturally interested in the work of these boards and in their attitude toward educational progress. They are also concerned in knowing whether this work is primarily one of education or one of religious propaganda; whether the denominational school and college are undertaken on the ground of a conscious fitness for teaching, or whether they form part of the regular machinery of the religious organization. The relations of these boards to education are of great interest, and I have endeavored in the following pages to condense from their annual year books such statements as may fairly represent their general purposes in education, so far as these can be learned from printed reports.

Before entering upon a description of the organization and work of these boards, it may be worth while to state briefly the influences which have hitherto operated in bringing colleges into related groups, the connecting thread being in many cases the denominational tie. On the other hand, it is interesting to note how little this has accomplished in promoting unity and coöperation among colleges of the same denomination.



The earliest educational foundations in the United States were established under the supervision, more or less direct, of some of the Christian churches. Thus the relation between Harvard College and the established Congregational churches of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay was a close one, the ministers of certain towns long retaining seats upon the board of overseers. Similarly Yale College was in direct relationship with the Congregational churches of Connecticut, the charter retaining for over one hundred years a provision for a certain number of Congregational divines as trustees, and when, during the middle of the eighteenth century, the president of Yale and several professors announced their intention to enter the Church of England, the announcement was, as a matter of course, accompanied by their resignations from the college faculty. King's College in New York City (now Columbia University) was established under the auspices of the Church of England, the Archbishop of Canterbury being the Visitor of the college, and Trinity Parish in New York providing the college with its first site. The Venerable Society for the Propagation of the Gospel occupied, until the revolution, the position of patron of King's College, and succored it frequently with funds.

Princeton was, notwithstanding an absence of charter control, generally considered as distinctively a Presbyterian college as Rutgers was a Dutch Reformed one, and in general it may be said that until well along in the nineteenth century, whether colleges were legally connected with a church or simply associated with a church in thought and service, almost every educational institution looked up to some one of the churches for fostering care and means of growth, and in return gave to that church the influence to be derived from the regulation of the form of worship in the college chapel and from the free use of the college pulpit. It may be remarked that the sundering of the legal charter ties in the cases of Harvard, Yale, and Columbia did not prevent those institutions from remaining in this relation of community of worship with the church by which they had formerly been controlled. It was not usual for a college to be established, like Leland Stanford Junior University, hospitable and receptive to all of the religious bodies to which its students belong, but on especially intimate terms with none. The extraordinary charter requirements of Girard College show how, in the period of its incorporation, it was thought almost necessary to accompany freedom from any form of ecclesiastical control with the denial of ordinary courtesies to ecclesiastics.

In the Roman Catholic institutions the connection with the church is as a rule maintained through the ownership of the entire property of the college or university by one of the religious orders. Thus the first Roman Catholic college in the United States was founded by the Jesuit Fathers when they secured a charter for Georgetown University, and at the present time this order and some of the other orders, particularly the Christian Brothers, control a number of educational institutions, scattered over many states. It was not until 1899 that all of the Roman Catholic colleges were brought into intimate relationship with each other through the forma-

tion, by fifty-three colleges, under the guidance of the rector of the Catholic University of America, of an Association of Catholic Colleges of the United States.

Harvard and Yale were both Congregational institutions, but no central authority bound them together in any form of union. At a later date Lafayette College had as close relations with Methodist institutions as it had with a Presbyterian institution like Washington and Jefferson. This was the situation in all the religious organizations. On the other hand, as soon as a Roman Catholic order established a second college or university the two institutions formed a group, obeying, in as far as it seemed advisable to the heads of the order, a single authority. At least the institutions joined in carrying out a single policy, and, instead of contrasts, harmony in matters of educational direction could easily be secured. To-day, in certain of the religious orders, these groups are extensive and embrace many institutions. The close union between the colleges of a Roman Catholic order is thus the first illustration of what has been for a considerable time the policy in several Protestant churches through their educational societies or college boards. The Association of Catholic Colleges in the United States is, on the other hand, rather a federation corresponding to the Ohio State Association of Colleges, or the Association of Colleges of the Middle States and Maryland, for it concerns itself with pedagogical questions and matters of inter-college comity more than with policies of college administration and economy.

Partly out of the lack of unity among colleges of the same denomination grew the idea of a central board, which might have supervision, at least of a certain sort, over all the colleges and schools of a given denomination. Of these the more important are the Presbyterian College Board, the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, the Congregational Education Society, and the Board of Education of the Reformed Church in America, of whose organization and educational policy brief descriptions follow.

#### PRESBYTERIAN COLLEGE BOARD

In 1883 the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, acting upon the advice of a special committee on education, established the Presbyterian Board of Aid for Colleges and Academies, now simplified into the Presbyterian College Board. Since 1877 committees of the general assembly had been considering the entire question of education in its relation to the church, especially as it applied to the field of home missions. The special committee had sat for two years and had taken unusual care. Its report is comprehensive. The members say that in the opinion of the committee the supply of candidates for the Presbyterian ministry can be maintained at the number sufficient to supply existing pulpits, and to create the new pulpits needed, only by maintaining colleges in vital connection with the Presbyterian Church. In the more settled portions of the country



such colleges already exist and the duty is to see that the right spiritual atmosphere is maintained in them. But especial emphasis is placed upon the wisdom of planting new colleges in the sparsely settled and rapidly growing western states. These new colleges will materially assist the missionary movement in its present condition, and by training up ministers and missionaries on the ground, will enable the newer communities to supply in the future their own needs, and themselves pass on the benefit bestowed upon themselves. To assist the Presbyterian colleges already in being and to found new ones in strategic positions, a separate board, distinct from the old board of education, was necessary.

As a result of this recommendation, the Presbyterian College Board was constituted. It consists of twenty-four members, one half of whom shall be laymen, both ministers and laymen to be elected by the general assembly. The offices since 1904 have been at 156 Fifth Avenue, New York. According to its constitution, following the detailed recommendation of the special committee of 1881, the functions of the board are to gather funds from the Presbyterian Church and disburse them among the Presbyterian colleges, and to guide the munificence of Presbyterian givers that their contributions to education, made directly by them, shall nevertheless be along the lines which the policy of the board approves. This is stated in paragraph 8 (d) of the constitution thus: "The board shall endeavor to have all gifts for Christian education within our church either passed through its treasury or reported to it." Gifts paid into the treasury of the board shall be paid out under the following provisions of the constitution, Section VIII (a) and (b):

"(a) Every college hereafter established, as a condition of receiving aid, shall be organically connected with the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, or by perpetual Charter provision shall have two thirds of its Board of Control members of this Church.

"(b) In case of colleges already established, and not included under the above provisions, appropriations for endowment shall be so made as to revert to the Board whenever these colleges shall pass from Presbyterian control."

The board has been instrumental in establishing a number of new colleges in the western states, such as the College of Idaho; Lenox College, Hopkinton, Iowa; Huron College in South Dakota; Montana College, Deer Lodge; Albert Lea College, Albert Lea, Minnesota; Trinity University, Waxahachie, Texas; the Presbyterian College of Florida, Eustis, and others. Westminster College, Salt Lake City, and Westminster University, Denver, are the most recent establishments of the board. In its annual report of 1907 the board points out that there are still whole states and territories in which the cry that there are "too many colleges" cannot be raised, for, as it says (page 8), "Nevada, Wyoming, North Dakota, New Mexico, Arizona, have no Presbyterian institutions of higher learning. Neither have Cuba, Porto Rico, nor Alaska, and yet we include these fields in our home mission territory."

In the last annual report of the Presbyterian College Board (1908) the principles



are laid down upon which the board will either aid colleges directly or endeavor to influence gifts to them. First, the college must require from all students for graduation a study of the Bible at least equivalent during the entire course to 144 unit hours. Second, every teacher in the college must be certified to the college board as being "of open Christian profession and possessing actual spiritual influence with students." "Of the 943 teachers last year in the colleges in relation with the board 902, or about 96 per cent, were members of evangelical churches. This percentage is rising," and the remaining four per cent, it is explained in the report, were nearly all in the music or art department, or with some such irregular connection. In such cases the board does not insist upon the teacher being of "open Christian profession."

The third requirement of the Presbyterian College Board is that a college assisted or endowed by it shall "seek the conversion and consecration of every student as its prime business."

Below is the official list given by the Presbyterian College Board of "Institutions Coöperating with the College Board and Reporting to it."

Albany College	Albany, Oregon	James Millikin University	Decatur, Illinois
Albert Lea College	Albert Lea, Minn.	Lafayette College	Easton, Pennsylvania
Alexander College	Burkesville, Kentucky	Lake Forest College	Lake Forest, Illinois
Alma College	Alma, Michigan	Lenox College	Hopkinton, Iowa
Arkansas Cumberland College	Clarksville, Arkansas	Lincoln College	Lincoln, Illinois
Bellevue College	Bellevue, Nebraska	Lincoln University	Lincoln Univ., Pa.
Bethel College	McKenzie, Tennessee	Lindenwood College	St. Charles, Missouri
Biddle University	Charlotte, N. C.	Macalester College	St. Paul, Minnesota
Blackburn University	Carlinville, Illinois	Maryville College	Maryville, Tennessee
Blairsville College	Blairsville, Pa.	Missouri Valley College	Marshall, Missouri
Buena Vista College	Storm Lake, Iowa	Montana, College of	Deer Lodge, Montana
Caldwell College	Danville, Kentucky	Occidental College	Los Angeles, Cal.
Carroll College	Waukesha, Wisconsin	Oswego College	Oswego, Kansas
Cumberland University	Lebanon, Tennessee	Park College	Parkville, Missouri
Elmira College	Elmira, New York	Parsons College	Fairfield, Iowa
Emporia, College of	Emporia, Kansas	Trinity University	Waxahachie, Texas
Florida, Pres. Coll. of	Eustis, Florida	Washington and Tusculum College	Greeneville, Tennessee
Grove City College	Grove City, Pa.	Waynesburg College	Waynesburg, Pa.
Hanover College	Hanover, Indiana	Western College	Oxford, Ohio
Hastings College	Hastings, Nebraska	Westminster College	Fulton, Missouri
Henry Kendall College	Muskogee, Oklahoma	Westminster College	Salt Lake City, Utah
Highland University	Highland, Kansas	Westminster University	Denver, Colorado
Huron College	Huron, S. D.	Whitworth College	Tacoma, Wash.
Idaho, College of	Caldwell, Idaho	Wilson College	Chambersburg, Pa.
Illinois College	Jacksonville, Illinois	Wooster, University of	Wooster, Ohio
Indianola College	Wynnewood, Okla.		

The names of the following colleges also appear in the year book of the board, but, in order that their relation to the church or to the board may not be confused, they are given under this statement: "The following institutions are not connected with the Presbyterian Church by any legal ties, nor are they subject to ecclesiastical

control. Their history, however, and associations with the life and work of our Church are such as to justify our earnest coöperation with them."

Central University of Kentucky, Danville, Kentucky

Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa

New York University, New York, New York

Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Indiana

Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pennsylvania

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

The Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church owes its origin to the appointment of a committee by the general conference of 1864 to consider "to what object and in what proportions the moneys raised as connectional funds shall be appropriated." This committee recommended the organization of a board to take charge of all the moneys contributed during the centenary celebration of 1866, and thereafter, for the relief of poor scholars and the advancement of general educational interests. The general conference of 1868 approved of the committee's recommendation and instituted the board.

The board began its work with a fund of about \$84,000, six sevenths of which had been contributed as a part of the "Sunday-school Children's Fund." In 1870, the year following the formal incorporation of the board, it proposed to the annual conferences that the second Sunday in June of each year be celebrated as children's day, and a collection be taken, to be given to the Children's Fund. The general conference of 1872 officially recommended this observance of children's day, and asked for collections from all the Sunday-schools in aid of the fund. In 1892 the general conference made it the duty of every pastor to observe this day, to take a collection for the fund, and to forward it to the board of education. In the meantime, in 1884 and in 1888, it had been provided that the moneys in this fund should be distributed annually in loans to students and for current work, accumulation of endowment funds only to take place where the gifts and bequests specifically provided therefor. In 1907 the collections for the children's fund amounted to \$85,000.

The general conference of 1892 revised the chapter of the Discipline concerning education, and a university senate was erected, elective by the general conference, to formulate the standard of requirements for the baccalaureate degree in institutions of the Methodist Church. The board of education was ordered to apply these regulations of the university senate, and classify the Methodist institutions according as they met these requirements. The senate convened for the first time in 1893, and after adopting a standard of requirements for college graduation, reported its action to the board. The board, in 1894, began to apply these resolves of the senate, the annual report of the board for 1895 classifying the Methodist institutions according to the senate's action into colleges and academies respectively. In 1896 the general conference enacted that no institution of intended collegiate grade esta-



blished after that date should be eligible for connectional recognition or aid unless it should have secured the approval of the board of education before its establishment. From time to time the powers of the board have been variously enlarged. In 1907 besides the children's collection already mentioned, applicable solely to student relief, the board received \$50,000 as the return by students of loans made in previous years, and it had an income of \$17,000, enough to pay all of its running expenses, from its invested funds. A publication, *The Christian Student*, appearing quarterly, contains the annual report of the board, statistics of the institutions connected with it, and other literature concerning higher education in the Methodist Church. The board does not make direct grants to institutions.

The university senate consists of fifteen members, all elected by the general conference, one at large, the other fourteen for the fourteen districts into which the Union has been divided for this purpose. The members are always presidents or chancellors of Methodist colleges or universities. The following resolutions, which were adopted at the meeting of the senate in February, 1908, indicate the present policy of the body, and the lines along which it plans its educational activities in the future:

*"Resolved,* That while the University Senate is not yet ready to prescribe as an immediate requirement a measurably higher standard for the college on the official list, it is deemed best to advise all our institutions to move as speedily as possible to the following standard: (1) To the requirement of a full four years' preparatory course for entrance to the freshman class. (2) To the requirement of full four years of collegiate work as leading to the Bachelor's degree—the course to include only such studies as properly belong in the College of Liberal Arts. (3) To the requirement of a faculty of not less than six professors, giving their time exclusively to collegiate as distinguished from preparatory work. (4) To the requirement of not less than fifty students regularly enrolled in the four college classes. (5) To the requirement of not less than \$200,000 as actual productive endowment as necessary to give an institution stability and to secure for it the confidence of its constituency."

The following memorial to the general conference was adopted:

"It is the earnest opinion of the University Senate that the work of our present Board of Education should be modified so that it could aid institutions as well as students especially by becoming the custodian of general endowments for the educational work of the church."

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SOUTH

The Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was established by the general conference which met in Memphis, Tennessee, in the spring of 1894. The charter was formally adopted at a meeting held in Monteagle, Tennessee, in the summer of 1895. At this meeting, the board drew up a paper setting forth the aims and policy of the board, and ordered the paper to be published and widely disseminated throughout the church.



This document declares the aim of the board to be, first, to promote the endowment of existing colleges which have the elements of success and the necessary conditions of usefulness; second, to repress the tendency to multiply institutions with inadequate prospects of support. This tendency, says the board, "has strewn our territory with more dead colleges than we have now in operation and dragged to the dust with them the credit of endorsing conferences." The third aim of the board was stated to be to encourage the establishment of academies, "which," in the words of the board, "are especially demanded by present educational conditions, and are easily within the reach of our means and should be placed in close correlation with such institutions of our church as the annual conference may direct." The fourth and final aim of the board was announced to be "to complete our system by correlating as rapidly as possible our conference colleges with the graduate and professional departments of Vanderbilt University." To carry out these aims the board proposed to bring into coöperation with itself the conference boards of education, and for the more perfect organization of the educational work of the several conferences, to ask each conference to appoint a secretary of education. The board also proposed "to secure full and accurate statistics of our education work;" to have addresses delivered; pamphlets, tracts, and articles prepared and printed on the subject of Christian education and the conditions and needs of the educational work of the Methodist Church, South. The board, further, was to urge each annual conference to make such assessments for the educational work within their respective boundaries as, in the words of the Discipline, "shall be adequate to maintain them upon a plane worthy of the confidence of the public and the patronage of our church." This statement of the aims and purposes of the board contained also an appeal generally for contributions "to assist colleges already founded to a solid position and adequate facilities," and it was also specifically stated that "no money will be appropriated merely to maintain institutions as they are." The board of education closed its announcement and appeal to the church by saying that "we can apply to advantage the large contributions of the wealthy and the smaller gifts of the poor. The latter will ultimately suffice, we believe, to secure an educated man in every pulpit in Southern Methodism."

At the meeting of the board in 1896 steps were taken for securing complete statistics of the educational institutions of the Methodist Church, South. A committee was also appointed "to report on the possibility of bringing about a uniform standard in our institutions and of correlating them." At the 1897 meeting special attention was given to the work of the teachers' bureau under the management of the board, and the secretary of the board was authorized to publish an educational quarterly. In 1898 the directors at their meeting paid much attention to education among the negroes under their supervision.

In the last five years a number of important pieces of work have engaged the attention of the board of education. One of these has been the question of the classi-

fication of the educational institutions of the Methodist Church, South, on which the board now has a permanent committee. In 1907 the educational commission made a careful and comprehensive report on that subject, which has been adopted by the board. This report classifies the educational institutions of the church into three grades. The first is that of universities; and a university is defined as an institution having "a productive endowment of not less than one million dollars, and organized on a basis of professional schools and of elective studies, with departments of original research." Colleges constitute the second grade, and "in order to be classed as a college an institution must employ not less than seven professors, or adjunct professors, giving their entire time (at least fifteen hours a week) to college instruction. It shall have, exclusive of matriculation and tuition fees, a permanent annual income of five thousand dollars, which may arise from interest on endowment fund, conference assessments, private gifts, or net earnings from board or dormitories." There are two classes of colleges, Class A and Class B. In order to be admitted to Class A a college must have an endowment fund (unless it is a college for women) of one hundred thousand dollars, and after 1909-10 shall require fourteen units (11.2 units of the Carnegie Foundation), on four of which the student may be conditioned provided he offer three units of English and two and a half in mathematics. Colleges of Class B shall require twelve units for entrance (9.6 units of the Carnegie Foundation) with the same rules in regard to conditional admission as are in force in Class A colleges.

It will not be necessary to recapitulate the various fields of activity over which the operation of the board extends. It will be sufficient to give one feature as illustrative of their nature in general. For several years the board has been active in planting educational institutions of the Methodist Church, South, in the northwest and on the Pacific coast. A junior college at Milton, Oregon, has been in operation for several years, having recently dropped the designation of college proper and planned to correlate its work with that of Whitman College at Walla Walla, Washington. Buildings and grounds have already been secured for a similar institution at Stevensville, Montana, the Montana Conference Training School. The most elaborate work of this character, however, is the careful foundation which is being laid by the board for an institution in California. The following quotations from the report of the secretary of the board of education in 1907 will give the plan of this establishment:

"1. It is to be under the control of this board until it is well established and in successful operation. The board is to provide its faculty and direct their work. In this way the school will be saved from the mistakes common to such enterprises in their beginnings.

"2. It is to be of the junior college grade. No academic degrees will be conferred under its present charter. It will do four years of high school work and two—*viz.* the freshman and sophomore—of college work. It will adjust its curriculum to those



of the two leading universities of the state, the University of California, at Berkeley, and the Leland Stanford Junior, at Palo Alto. . . . The work we are to do will be of the same grade as that done by these institutions.

"3. At the same time our school will be thoroughly denominational and religious. The constant purpose will be to promote the religious life of the students. In this way we hope to keep our own institution religiously strong, and also, by injecting from year to year large bodies of our graduates into the great universities, to provide for them a leaven that will greatly aid in their Christian development."

Below is the list of educational institutions, classified according to the grades described above, as given in the report of the board for 1908. Institutions in foreign countries are omitted.

Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee

CLASS A, COLLEGES

Central College	Fayette, Missouri	Randolph-Macon Woman's	
Emory College	Oxford, Georgia	College	Lynchburg, Virginia
Hendrix College	Conway, Arkansas	Southwestern University	Georgetown, Texas
Millsaps College	Jackson, Mississippi	Trinity College	Durham, N. C.
Randolph-Macon College	Ashland, Virginia	Wesleyan Female College	Macon, Georgia
		Wofford College	Spartanburg, S. C.

CLASS B, COLLEGES

Emory and Henry College	Emory, Virginia	Polytechnic College	Fort Worth, Texas
Galloway College	Searcy, Arkansas	Southern University	Greensboro, Alabama
Kentucky Wesleyan College	Winchester, Ky.		

UNCLASSIFIED

Alabama Conference Female College	Tuskegee, Alabama	Greensboro Female College	Greensboro, N. C.
Andrew Female College	Cuthbert, Georgia	Grenada College	Grenada, Mississippi
Athens College	Athens, Alabama	Henderson College	Arkadelphia, Ark.
Birmingham College	Birmingham, Ala.	Hiwassee College	Sweetwater, Tenn.
Bowling Green Female Seminary	Bowling Green, Va.	Howard-Payne College	Fayette, Missouri
Centenary College of Louisiana	Shreveport, Louisiana	Lagrange College	Lagrange, Georgia
Centenary Female College	Cleveland, Tennessee	Lander College	Greenwood, S. C.
Central College for Women	Lexington, Missouri	Logan College for Young Ladies	Russellville, Ky.
Chappell Hill Female College	Chappell Hill, Texas	Louisburg College	Louisburg, N. C.
Clarendon College	Clarendon, Texas	Mansfield Female College	Mansfield, Louisiana
Columbia College	Columbia, S. C.	Martha Washington College	Abingdon, Virginia
Columbia College	Milton, Oregon	Martin College	Pulaski, Tennessee
Coronal Institute	San Marcos, Texas	Memphis Conference Female Institute	Jackson, Tennessee
Davenport College	Lenoir, North Carolina	Millersburg Female College	Millersburg, Kentucky
Epworth University	Oklahoma City, Okla.	Morris Harvey College	Barboursville, W. Va.



Morrisville College	Morrisville, Missouri	South Georgia College	McRae, Georgia
North Texas Female College	Sherman, Texas	Southern College	Sutherland, Florida
Northwest Missouri College	Albany, Missouri	Southern Seminary	Buena Vista, Virginia
Pacific Methodist College	Santa Rosa, California	Spaulding Female College	Muskogee, Oklahoma
Port Gibson Female College	Port Gibson, Miss.	Sullins College	Bristol, Virginia
San Angelo Collegiate Institute	San Angelo, Texas	Warthen College	Wrightsville, Georgia
San Antonio Female College	San Antonio, Texas	Weaverville College	Weaverville, N. C.
		Whitworth College	Brookhaven, Miss.
		Willie Halsell College	Vinita, Oklahoma
		Young L. G. Harris College	Young Harris, Ga.

CONGREGATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY

On December 4, 1816, there was incorporated in the city of Boston the American Society for the Education of Pious Youth for the Gospel Ministry. This organization was the result of a movement set on foot about six months before that date by a few young men who banded themselves together "to educate pious young men for the ministry." Gradually the clergy and laymen of Congregational Boston became interested, a constitution was framed, and the formal society finally came into being. The object of the society, as stated, was to aid "indigent young men of talents and hopeful piety in acquiring a learned and competent education for the gospel ministry." The opening meeting of the society was held December 7, 1816.

On the occasion of this meeting need of trained ministers in the west and south was set forth. Within eleven months \$4000 were collected from the churches, and forty young men "of hopeful piety" in Canada and the United States were being aided financially in their education. Three years later, on January 31, 1820, the name of the society was changed by an act of the General Court to the American Education Society.

In the west a somewhat similar movement had been started, out of which grew the founding of Illinois College in Jacksonville. The new society, called the Western College Society, had no strong organization. It was not until June 29, 1843, that this society was formally launched as the Society for the Promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education. On March 9, 1874, this second organization was united with the Boston society under the new name of the American College and Education Society. Until 1893 the work of the American College and Education Society was confined to collegiate and seminary education; but by an act of legislature of March 25, 1893, its scope was enlarged to include academic training and its name was changed to the American Education Society. The need for academies which should give good college preparatory courses was felt in the west and southwest, where secondary education was especially weak, and within three years the society was aiding "a score of academies from twelve different states and territories."

In September of the same year the society consolidated with the New West Edu-

cation Commission, an organization incorporated in Chicago in 1879, whose object was "the promotion of Christian civilization in Utah and New Mexico . . . through the agency of Christian schools." The consolidation added mission-school work to the already large scope of the society.

On March 9, 1894, the name of the society was again changed, this time to the Congregational Education Society, the title which it bears to-day. Its object, as finally set forth in the constitution adopted April 11, 1904, is "the promotion of Christian education by assisting needy young men of piety and ability in acquiring an education for the gospel ministry; by aiding theological and collegiate institutions, academies, and other schools in which children and youth are trained under Christian teachers." By an act of legislature approved February 25, 1907, and adopted by the corporation June 12, 1907, the powers of the society were enlarged by the authority "to promote Christian civilization in any territory or country acquired or hereafter acquired by the United States . . . and in foreign countries, by endowing, assisting, or establishing academic, collegiate, or theological institutions of learning therein, and by . . . aiding indigent children and young persons . . . seeking an education in such institutions."

Up to 1906 the society had made large contributions in all branches of its work. More than \$2,457,113 had been given to thirty colleges and seminaries in the ninety years of its existence—an average of over \$27,300 a year; \$354,424 had been donated, within fourteen years, to academies, making here an annual average of \$25,316; \$887,964 had been contributed toward the mission schools since the beginning of the New West Education Commission. According to a statement published in 1906 by the society itself the total for all its departments from their respective beginnings until that year was \$5,541,209.

The list of colleges which the society has aided reflects on it the greatest credit. The colleges are:

Beloit College	Beloit, Wisconsin	Olivet College	Olivet, Michigan
Carleton College	Northfield, Minnesota	Pacific University	Forest Grove, Oregon
College of St. Paul, The	St. Paul, Minnesota	Pomona College	Claremont, California
Colorado College	Colorado Springs, Col.	Ripon College	Ripon, Wisconsin
Doane College	Crete, Nebraska	Wabash College	Crawfordsville, Ind.
Fargo College	Fargo, North Dakota	Washburn College	Topeka, Kansas
Heidelberg College	Tiffin, Ohio	Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio
Illinois College	Jacksonville, Illinois	Whitman College	Walla Walla, Wash.
Iowa College	Grinnell, Iowa	Wilberforce University	Wilberforce, Ohio
Knox College	Galesburg, Illinois	Wittenberg College	Springfield, Ohio
Marietta College	Marietta, Ohio	Yankton College	Yankton, S. Dakota
Oberlin College	Oberlin, Ohio		

Four institutions are being aided at the present time, namely, Fairmount College, Wichita, Kansas; Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida; Kingfisher College, Kingfisher, Oklahoma; and Redfield College, Redfield, South Dakota.

The policy of the society in regard to the colleges it assists is exceptional. The so-



ciety seeks to aid institutions financially and not to control their administration. According to the rules of the board of directors, an institution, to receive any assistance, "must be and continue under the control of a self-perpetuating board of trustees." There are also the requirements that the majority of these trustees shall be members in good and regular standing in a Congregational Church and that every president shall be a member of an evangelical church. When a college, however, like Iowa College or Beloit, is upon a sound financial and educational basis, the society is willing to trust the future of the college to the traditions under which it was established. In regard to this point, Dr. Edward S. Tead, secretary of the society, wrote to the president of the Foundation: "We think it best to adhere to our policy, especially in the case of young institutions that need the fostering care of denominational strength. But when a college has reached maturity and feels that it can go alone, and states to the society that it wishes to be independent, then the society will probably accede to its request."

#### BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE REFORMED CHURCH IN AMERICA

In 1812 the General Synod of the Reformed Church in America ordered that collections be taken up in the churches for the sustenance of needy students for the ministry. The copyright of the Psalm and Hymn Book was also secured to the synod for this purpose and several bequests were received from members of the church. But the sum available continued small, and in 1828 a number of ministers and other friends of education met in the lecture room of the Collegiate Church in New York City, to consider the propriety of organizing a board of education.

As a result of this meeting a board of education was organized, with Colonel Henry Rutgers as president. The amount granted to a beneficiary was at first limited to ninety dollars a year; being designed to aid a student rather than sustain him fully. During the first year of its operation the board, with its auxiliary societies, assisted about twenty students. In 1831 this education society, to which donations began to be left, requested the general synod to take charge of it as the synod's own board. Accordingly, in 1832, the synod constituted a new board, with the same officers as the former board, and the funds of the old board were turned over to the care of the synod.

The board was incorporated in 1869 and since then it has retained in its own hands the scholarship funds entrusted to its care. These now amount to \$127,000. Before the organization of the board as a corporation the funds collected for this purpose were held either by the general synod itself or by Rutgers College. The total amount of the several funds is now about \$400,000. The interest on this amount, with the sum received each year through the collections in the churches and through individual gifts, is devoted to the assistance of students, whether in college and seminary, who are preparing for the ministry. A considerable proportion of this amount goes for instruction in the west.



In 1865 the scope of the board was enlarged beyond the giving of assistance to ministerial students. The general synod ordered the board to coöperate with the various classes in the establishment of academies and classical schools within their bounds. Rutgers College is so strong that it does not need, as an institution, the direct help of the board, but the other collegiate foundation of the Reformed Church in America, Hope College in Michigan, has matured under the auspices of the board from a merely academic institution into its collegiate character. In addition to academies, the parochial schools of the church are also helped to some extent by the board. The total disbursements are now about \$40,000 a year.

HENRY S. PRITCHETT

*October 18, 1908.*

DE MORTUIS





## DE MORTUIS

### WILLIAM ROLLIN SHIPMAN

**W**ILLIAM ROLLIN SHIPMAN was born on May 4, 1836, at Granville, Vermont. He was educated at Royalton Academy and at Middlebury College, from which he received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1859. In 1862 he received the degree of master of arts. From 1859 until 1863 he was principal of the Green Mountain Institute, South Woodstock, Vermont, and this position he resigned to take charge of the movement which resulted in the founding of Goddard Seminary, Barre, Vermont. He was president of the board of trustees of the seminary for many years. In 1864 he was appointed professor of rhetoric, logic, and English literature in Tufts College, and he remained an active member of the faculty for forty-three years. From 1900 to 1907 he was dean of the College of Letters.

In 1865 Professor Shipman was ordained a minister of the Universalist Church. In 1882 he received the degree of doctor of divinity from St. Lawrence University, and in 1899 Tufts College conferred upon him the degree of doctor of laws.

The Carnegie Foundation, on March 28, 1907, upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Tufts College, voted to Professor Shipman a retiring allowance. He died in Somerville, Massachusetts, on January 15, 1908.

### HERMAN DE CLERCQ STEARNS

**H**ERMAN DE CLERCQ STEARNS was born on September 14, 1865, at Joliet, Illinois. He received his preliminary education in the public schools of Joliet, and became a teacher in the Joliet High School, afterwards becoming principal of the public school at Lake Forest, Illinois. While holding this position he matriculated with the class of 1892 of Lake Forest College, but left that institution in 1891 to enter Leland Stanford Junior University as one of the students of its opening year.

He received from the university the degree of bachelor of arts in 1892, and the degree of master of arts in 1893. In the latter year he was appointed instructor in physics, in 1896 assistant professor of physics, and in 1900 associate professor of physics. During the academic year 1897-8 he had studied meteorology at the University of Berlin, and in 1902 he published the results of his experimentation in the *Determination of the Magnetic Susceptibility of Water*.

Professor Stearns's health having failed, the Carnegie Foundation on June 7, 1906, at the request of the board of trustees of Leland Stanford Junior University, granted to him a temporary allowance on the ground of disability. Professor Stearns died on October 21, 1907.

## JOHN HOLMES RAND

**J**OHN HOLMES RAND was born on August 3, 1838, at Parsonsfield, Maine. He received his early education at North Parsonsfield Seminary and at the Maine State Seminary, Lewiston, and was one of the sixteen students who in 1862 signed the petition to the principal asking that they might receive a college education in the seminary. When, as a result of this petition, Bates College was opened in 1863, he was one of the members of the first freshman class. He received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1867.

During his college course he had acted for one half year as principal of Litchfield Academy, and upon his graduation he was appointed professor of mathematics in the New Hampton (New Hampshire) Literary and Biblical Institute. In 1876 he was appointed professor of mathematics in Bates College and occupied that chair for thirty-one years.

On October 8, 1907, upon the nomination of the board of fellows of Bates College, the Carnegie Foundation granted to Professor Rand a retiring allowance. He died in Lewiston, Maine, on November 7, 1907.

## CHARLES SCOTT MAGOWAN

**C**HARLES SCOTT MAGOWAN was born on December 1, 1858, at Fairfield, Iowa. He was graduated from the State University of Iowa with the degree of civil engineer in 1884, and received the degree of master of arts in 1887. After several years spent in the professional services of the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railroad, and of the Union Pacific Railroad, he was appointed in 1886 assistant professor of engineering in the State University of Iowa. In 1894 his title was changed to that of assistant professor of civil engineering, and in 1903 he was made professor of municipal and sanitary engineering.

In 1893 he was elected city engineer of Iowa City, and served until 1896. In 1899 he was again elected and served until 1907. During his terms of service the paving system of the city was largely extended and the sanitary sewer system made to cover almost the entire municipality. Professor Magowan was a member of the Iowa Engineering Society, the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and the League of Iowa Municipalities. Since 1898 he had been treasurer of the Alumni Association of the State University of Iowa.

Professor Magowan's health having become impaired, the Carnegie Foundation on October 8, 1907, granted to him a temporary retiring allowance. But the hope of his recovery was disappointed, and he died at Iowa City on November 14, 1907.



## CHARLES PHILO MATTHEWS

CHARLES PHILO MATTHEWS was born on September 18, 1867, at Covington, New York, and was graduated from Cornell University with the degree of mechanical engineer in 1892. He was appointed upon his graduation to be assistant in physics at that university, and in 1893 was made instructor in physics. He held this position for three years, and in 1896 accepted the appointment as associate professor of electrical engineering in Purdue University. In 1904 he was made professor of electrical engineering and director of the electrical laboratory. He received the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1901 from Cornell University.

The Carnegie Foundation, on October 8, 1907, granted to him a temporary retiring allowance on account of serious illness. Change of climate, however, failed to bring the hoped-for improvement, and Professor Matthews died at Phoenix, Arizona, on November 23, 1907.

## CHARLES AUGUSTUS YOUNG

CHARLES AUGUSTUS YOUNG was born on December 15, 1834, at Hanover, New Hampshire, where his father and grandfather had each occupied the chair of natural philosophy and astronomy in Dartmouth College. He was graduated from Dartmouth College in 1853, standing at the head of his class. From 1853 to 1856 he taught Latin and Greek at Phillips Andover Academy, and in 1856 he was appointed to be professor of mathematics, natural philosophy, and astronomy in Western Reserve University, where he remained until 1866. In 1862 he served before Vicksburg as captain of Company B, Eighty-fifth Ohio Volunteer Infantry.

In 1866 he accepted the professorship of natural philosophy and astronomy in Dartmouth College, which chair he occupied until 1877. During his professorship at Dartmouth he was a member of a scientific party which observed the solar eclipse of August, 1869, at Burlington, Iowa, and subsequently of another party which observed the eclipse of December, 1870, at Jerez, Spain. He was also connected with the Transit of Venus Expedition to Peking in 1874.

Professor Young resigned from the Dartmouth faculty in 1877 to become professor of astronomy in Princeton University. In 1882 he made at Princeton extensive observations of the Transit of Venus. In 1891 he received from the French Academy of Sciences the Janssen medal for observations on the reversal of the lines of the solar spectrum. In 1900 he was the director of the party which observed the solar eclipse at Wadesboro, North Carolina. He devised the form of automatic spectroscope which is in general use, and he discovered the solar "reversing layer" which produces a bright-line spectrum corresponding to the ordinary dark-line spectrum. He was the author of *The Sun* (1882), *A General Astronomy* (1889), *Elements of Astronomy* (1890), *Lessons in Astronomy* (1891), and *Manual of Astronomy* (1902).



Professor Young was a member of the National Academy of Sciences, an associate fellow of the Boston Academy of Arts and Sciences, an honorary fellow of the New York Academy of Sciences and of the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, a foreign associate of the Royal Astronomical Society of Great Britain, and a member and sometime vice-president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. In 1870 he received the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Pennsylvania, and in 1871 from Hamilton College. The degree of doctor of laws was conferred upon him by Wesleyan University in 1876, by Columbia University in 1887, by Western Reserve University in 1893, and by Dartmouth College in 1903.

The Carnegie Foundation, on June 7, 1906, upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Princeton University, granted to Professor Young a retiring allowance. He died in Hanover, New Hampshire, on January 3, 1908.

#### WILLIAM ARNOLD ANTHONY

**W**ILLIAM ARNOLD ANTHONY was born on November 17, 1835, at Coventry, Rhode Island, and was graduated from the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University with the degree of bachelor of philosophy. He was a teacher in the Providence Conference Seminary 1859-60, and in the Delaware Literary Institute, Franklin, New York, 1862-7. From 1867 to 1869 he was professor of physics and chemistry at Antioch College, and from 1869 until 1872 he was professor of physics at the Iowa Agricultural College. In 1872 he was appointed professor of physics in Cornell University. One of the first electric generators in the country was built by Professor Anthony and installed in the shop of Sibley College. He organized the department of electrical engineering for Cornell.

In 1887 Professor Anthony resigned his chair at Cornell University in order to accept the position of consulting engineer to several large corporations in New York City. In 1892 he was asked by Cooper Union of New York to give some lectures on physics to the night classes. These classes and the day classes grew so rapidly that after 1894 he withdrew from his business engagements and devoted himself entirely to the charge of the instruction in physics in Cooper Union. He continued this work until his death. He published in 1898 *Lecture Notes on the Theory of Electrical Measurements*. In 1887 he was president of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers.

On account of Professor Anthony's singular effectiveness as a teacher of science and his pioneer work in the development of electrical engineering, the Carnegie Foundation, on November 20, 1907, granted to him a retiring allowance, to become effective upon his retirement at the conclusion of the academic year. He died at his residence in New York City on May 29, 1908.

## WALTER EUGENE COLBURN WRIGHT

**W**ALTER EUGENE COLBURN WRIGHT was born on October 26, 1843, at Whitehall, New York, and was graduated from Oberlin College in 1865 with the degree of bachelor of arts. While an undergraduate he had served in the army in the defense of Washington. In 1868 he was graduated from the Union Theological Seminary, New York City, and at the same time received the degree of master of arts from Oberlin College. After several pastorates in Philadelphia and elsewhere, serving one year as pastor of the American Chapel in Munich, Bavaria, he became in 1881 professor of natural science at Berea College, which chair he held until 1891.

In 1891 Professor Wright became field secretary of the American Missionary Association for its schools in the south, and later district secretary of the association. Upon his retirement from his professorship at Berea, he was elected a trustee of the college and so continued until his death. In 1895 he received the degree of doctor of divinity from Berea College and from Olivet College.

In the same year he was appointed professor of social science and Christian ethics in Olivet College, which position he occupied until 1908, when on account of his valuable services to education, the Carnegie Foundation, on February 6, 1908, granted to him a retiring allowance. Professor Wright died at Olivet, Michigan, on June 26, 1908.

## ROBERT A. CONDIT

**R**OBERT A. CONDIT was born on May 19, 1837, at Oswego, New York. He was graduated from the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University) with the degree of bachelor of arts in 1859 and served for two years as a tutor in the college. After studying law for a short time, he entered the Princeton Theological Seminary, from which he was graduated, and was then ordained a minister of the Presbyterian Church.

Mr. Condit served as pastor of churches in Minneapolis, St. Louis, and Peoria (Illinois), and in 1875 became principal of Coe Collegiate Institute, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. In 1881 the Coe Collegiate Institute developed into Coe College, and Mr. Condit was made professor of Latin and Greek, subsequently becoming professor of the Greek language and literature. For many years he served as dean of the college, and for a year as president *ad interim*.

Upon the completion of the academic year 1904-5, ill health compelled Dr. Condit to resign his chair, and, on September 28, 1906, the Carnegie Foundation, in view of the great value of his long services to education in Iowa, granted to him a retiring allowance. He died in Pasadena, California, in July, 1908.



## EDWARD MILES BROWN

**E**DWARD MILES BROWN was born in Schoolcraft, Michigan, on July 21, 1854. He received his elementary education in the schools and academies of his native community, and was graduated from the University of Michigan with the degree of bachelor of arts in 1880.

For the nine years following his graduation he taught in secondary schools, and in 1889 he served in the faculty of Cornell University as acting assistant professor of English. During the following year he studied at the universities of Halle, Strassburg, and Berlin, and in 1891 received from the University of Berlin the degree of doctor of philosophy. Upon his return to the United States Dr. Brown was made professor of modern languages at the University of Cincinnati, and two years later was transferred to be professor of the English language and literature, and was made head of the department. He was general editor of the Anglo-Saxon texts in the Belles-Lettres Series.

Professor Brown's health having failed, the Foundation granted to him a disability allowance on June 7, 1907. He died in Ann Arbor, Michigan, on September 15, 1908.

## EDWARD ALEXANDER MACDOWELL

**E**DWARD ALEXANDER MACDOWELL was born in New York City on December 18, 1861. As a boy he was far from the precocious genius type, even evincing the healthy lad's aversion to the drudgery of long practice on the piano, for which instrument, nevertheless, he exhibited an early fondness and talent. His mother, recognizing his ability, kept him, however, at the piano, and in 1876, when he was fourteen years old, took him to Paris to study music.

A year later he entered the *Conservatoire*, where he developed distinct musical ambition. Desiring, after a short time, to study in Germany, upon the advice of the violinist Samet, his mother took him to Wiesbaden. After studying during the summer with Louis Ehlert, who said that he could not "teach" him, young MacDowell went to Frankfort, where Raff was in charge of the conservatory and Clara Schumann and Heymann were among the piano teachers. In 1881, when Heymann left, he suggested that the young American be his successor, but his youth was considered a bar, and Mr. MacDowell became a piano instructor at the Darmstadt conservatory. He did not stay long at Darmstadt, owing to the strain of too long hours of teaching, but returned to Frankfort, having in the meantime composed nearly all of his second piano suite.

In Frankfort he had enough pupils to bring in a living, but devoted his best energies to composition. He had the satisfaction of playing in all the German cities near Frankfort, and in knowing that his compositions were beginning to be recognized.



Finally, upon Raff's advice, he went to Weimar to visit Liszt. He was well received. The great pianist was so much pleased with his playing that he asked him to perform his first piano suite at the convention of the *Allgemeiner Musikverein* in Zurich. The outcome of the occasion was the offer of a German publishing house to bring out the American's work.

In 1889 Mr. MacDowell returned to America, making his home in Boston and devoting much of his time to outdoor life. As a teacher of music he became known throughout the United States. His fame as a composer grew rapidly, and in 1896 the Boston Symphony Orchestra paid him the compliment, probably unprecedented, of placing two of his largest works upon the same program. Previously he had achieved his first triumph in New York, when, in the double rôle of composer and pianist, he had played his second concerto with the Philharmonic Society, in December, 1894.

In 1896 he was elected professor of music in Columbia University, occupying the chair which had been established with an endowment of \$150,000 from the Robert Center fund for instruction in music. For the next few years, as he himself said, he put all his energy and enthusiasm into the cause of art at Columbia, and he made his department, notwithstanding his dissatisfaction with the situation regarding the fine arts in American universities, a surprising success. Yet he was out of place where only a few students were sufficiently advanced to require the guidance of a man of genius, and in 1904 he resigned his chair. He had advocated the wisdom of allowing no student to enter the university without some knowledge of the fine arts. "Such knowledge may be very general, and not technical. This would force upon the preparatory school the admission of the fine arts to its curriculum. The present ignorance of the incoming student demands a remedy if the courses in the fine arts are to give anything but the most elementary instruction. No student should attain his B.A. degree without passing in at least two courses of a faculty of fine arts." Professor MacDowell had also proposed that a faculty of fine arts be established consisting of the courses in music given under the faculty of philosophy, the courses in architecture in the School of Mines, to which should be added Belles-Lettres courses, and the establishment of instruction in painting and sculpture.

Like many other modern composers (Chopin, Franz, Grieg, and others) MacDowell preferred the shorter form of composition to the more elaborate ones. Nevertheless, he wrote two concertos for the piano and four pianoforte sonatas, which are among his best works, being in point of inspiration far superior to anything else of the kind ever done in America. Of his orchestral works only one, *The Indian Suite*, belongs to the period when his genius had fully matured; there is much that is charming, however, in the others—*Lancelot and Elaine*, and *Hamlet and Ophelia*—as well as in his first suite. As a writer of songs and pianoforte pieces he ranks with the best European masters of the time. Especially notable are his collections of short pieces,—*Woodland Sketches*, *Sea Pieces*, *New England Idyls*; also his *Lieder* or lyric

songs for one voice, about fifty in all. A number of them are set to poems of his own. For several years MacDowell clubs have existed in Boston and in New York for the study of the composer's works.

Professor MacDowell returned to private teaching and composition with enthusiasm. One day a week he gave up to pupils who could not afford to pay for lessons. He composed with a vigor meant to atone for the recent years divorced from original work. But he allowed himself no time for rest, and as a result he was attacked by an affection of the brain and nervous system,—a slow disintegration of the cerebral substance, which physicians of eminence pronounced incurable. The Mendelssohn Glee Club of New York raised a fund for his assistance, and the Carnegie Foundation, in recognition of his genius as the foremost musician and writer of music the United States has produced, and of the honor which his work had brought to America, on September 28, 1906, granted a retiring allowance to Professor MacDowell.

Professor MacDowell died in New York City on January 23, 1908.

#### JAMES VENABLE LOGAN

**J**AMES VENABLE LOGAN was born in Scott County, Kentucky, on July 11, 1835; was educated at Centre College from which he received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1854, and at the Danville Theological Seminary from which he was graduated in 1860. From 1860 to 1868 he was pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Harrodsburg, Kentucky. In 1868 he became editor of the *Free Christian Commonwealth* of Louisville, Kentucky, now the *Christian Observer*. He was intimately associated with the organization of the Central University of Kentucky, and in 1876 became professor of philosophy in that institution. In 1880 he became president of the College of Arts and Sciences of the University, and continued in this office until the consolidation of the Central University with the Centre College of Kentucky in 1901. He then became professor of philosophy in the Centre College of the consolidated Central University of Kentucky, which position he held until July 1, 1908.

Upon the nomination of the trustees of Central University the Carnegie Foundation granted to Professor Logan a retiring allowance on May 5, 1908. He died in Minnesota on August 8, 1908.

#### THOMAS WALLACE WRIGHT

**T**HOMAS WALLACE WRIGHT was born in 1842 in Galloway, Scotland. When he was twelve years old his parents removed to Galt, Canada, from which place he entered the University of Toronto, receiving the degree of bachelor of arts in 1863. For the next seven years he taught mathematics and physics at the Galt Collegiate Institute. He then entered the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University, receiving

there the degree of bachelor of philosophy in 1872, and that of civil engineer in 1882. From 1872 to 1882 he was engaged in engineering work for the United States government, in connection with the North and Northwestern Lakes Survey. In 1883 he became instructor in engineering at Lehigh University, and was called from there in 1885 to the chair of applied mathematics and physics at Union College. In 1891 he received the degree of master of arts from the University of Toronto, and in the same year that of doctor of philosophy from Union. In 1898 he became professor of mathematics at Union, holding this chair until his retirement from active teaching in 1905.

Dr. Wright published in 1884 *A Treatise on the Adjustment of Observations, with Applications to Measures of Precision*; in 1890 *A Text-Book of Mechanics*; in 1896 *Elements of Mechanics*; and he also was the author of various papers on geodesy and mathematical physics.

Upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Union University, the Carnegie Foundation, on June 7, 1906, granted a retiring allowance to Dr. Wright. He died in Schenectady on September 13, 1908.





## **REPORT OF THE TREASURER**





## REPORT OF THE TREASURER

*To the Chairman and Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:*

IN accordance with the provisions of Article IX of the By-laws, the chairman of the board of trustees designated Patterson, Teele & Dennis, certified public accountants, to audit the accounts of the Foundation for the last fiscal year. On October 1 the books of the treasurer were accordingly turned over to this firm, whose report follows:

We hereby certify that we have audited the accounts of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching for the year ending September 30, 1908, and that the Income upon the Investments has been duly accounted for, and that the expenditure has been duly authorized and vouched.

The original securities representing the Fund are carried at par value and the additional securities representing the investment of a portion of the income are carried at cost.

All the securities representing these investments have been produced to us.

The Cash in Bank has been verified with a certificate received from the bankers and the Cash on Hand by actual count.

PATTERSON, TEELE & DENNIS  
*Certified Public Accountants.*

## BALANCE SHEET, SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

### *Assets*

Investments, as per <i>Exhibit 1</i> , at Cost	\$10,762,953.93
Interest accrued on Investments to Sept. 30, 1908, as per <i>Exhibit 1</i>	175,097.52
Cash in bank and on hand	19,410.39
Office Furniture and Fittings, at Cost	4,611.71
Retiring Allowance paid in advance	100.00
<i>Total Assets</i>	<u><u>\$10,962,173.55</u></u>

### *Fund and Accumulations, &c.*

Endowment Fund	\$10,000,000.00
Income and Expenditure Account:	
Accumulation to Sept. 30, 1907	\$717,974.59
Accumulation for year ending Sept. 30, 1908	<u>243,233.48</u>
<i>Total Accumulations to Sept. 30, 1908</i>	961,208.07
Reserve for Depreciation on Office Furniture and Fittings and Premium on Bonds	947.58
Sundry Creditors	<u>17.90</u>
<i>Total Fund and Accumulations, &amp;c.</i>	<u><u>\$10,962,173.55</u></u>

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT  
FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

*Income*

Income for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908, <i>Exhibit 1</i>	\$528,422.89
Interest on Bank Balance for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908	1,882.68
<i>Total Income for period</i>	<u>\$530,305.57</u>

*Expenditure*

RETIRING ALLOWANCES:

To Professors, Officers, and Widows in Accepted Institutions	\$161,129.95	
To Professors, Officers, and Widows not in Accepted Institutions	85,512.46	\$246,642.41

ADMINISTRATION EXPENSES:

Salaries	\$23,043.00	
Printing	4,929.12	
Office Rent	3,966.62	
Traveling Expenses	3,810.86	
Legal and Professional Fees	1,114.33	
Postage	980.50	
Removing and Alterations and Office Expenses, etc.	969.27	
Stationery and Office Supplies	856.54	
Telephone and Telegraph	228.39	39,898.63
Depreciation on Office Furniture and Fit- tings, 10%		461.17
Reserve for Proportion of Premium on Bonds purchased		69.88
<i>Total Expenditure for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908</i>		<u>\$287,072.09</u>
Accumulation for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908		<u><u>\$243,233.48</u></u>



# STATEMENT OF SECURITIES HELD AND INCOME THEREON SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

<i>Par Value</i>	<i>Security</i>	<i>Date Acquired</i>	<i>Interest due Date</i>	<i>Cost of Security</i>	<i>Interest accrued at Oct. 1, 1907</i>	<i>Interest received during Year ending Sept. 30, 1908</i>	<i>Interest accrued at Sept. 30, 1908</i>	<i>Income for Year ending Sept. 30, 1908</i>
\$3,350,000.00	U. S. Steel Corporation Series "B" Registered 50 Years 5% Gold Bonds. Due April, 1931	Dec. 1, 1905	Feb. 1 & Aug. 1	\$3,350,000.00	\$27,916.67	\$167,500.00	\$27,916.67	\$167,500.00
3,350,000.00	U. S. Steel Corporation Series "D" Registered 50 Years 5% Gold Bonds. Due April, 1931	Dec. 1, 1905	Apr. 1 & Oct. 1	3,350,000.00	83,750.00	167,500.00	83,750.00	167,500.00
3,300,000.00	U. S. Steel Corporation Series "F" Registered 50 Years 5% Gold Bonds. Due April, 1931	Dec. 1, 1905	June 1 & Dec. 1	3,300,000.00	55,000.00	165,000.00	55,000.00	165,000.00
50,000.00	Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. Southwestern Division First Mtge. 3½% Gold Coupon Bonds. Due July 1, 1925	June 9, 1906 (\$20,000.00) Dec. 6, 1906 (\$30,000.00)	Jan. 1 & July 1	45,550.00	437.50	1,750.00	437.50	1,750.00
50,000.00	Pennsylvania Co. 4% 15-25 Years Gold Coupon Loan 1906. Due April 1, 1931	June 9, 1906	Apr. 1 & Oct. 1	49,125.00	1,000.00	2,000.00	1,000.00	2,000.00
50,000.00	The Lake Shore & Michigan So. Ry. Co. 25 Years 4% Gold Coupon Bonds. Due September 1, 1928	June 9, 1906	Mar. 1 & Sept. 1	49,125.00	166.67	2,000.00	166.67	2,000.00
50,000.00	Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R. Co. Illinois Division, First Mtge. 4% Bonds. Due July 1, 1949	Aug. 1, 1906	Jan. 1 & July 1	50,562.50	500.00	2,000.00	500.00	2,000.00
50,000.00	Southern Pacific R. R. Co. First Refunding Mtge. 4% Gold Bonds. Due January 1, 1955	Aug. 1, 1906 (\$20,000.00) Apr. 29, 1908 (\$30,000.00)	Jan. 1 & July 1	45,360.00	200.00	1,003.33	500.00	1,303.33
95,000.00	Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. 4% Refunding Gold Bonds. Due December 1, 1929	Oct. 3, 1906 (\$60,000.00) Dec. 12, 1907 (\$35,000.00)	June 1 & Dec. 1	85,578.98	800.00	3,053.98	1,266.67	3,520.65

35,000.00	Oregon Railroad & Navigation Co. 4% Consolidated Mtge. Gold Bonds. Due June 1, 1946	Dec. 6, 1906 (\$30,000.00) April 30, 1908 (\$5,000.00)	June 1 & Dec. 1	34,681.80	400.00	1,217.22	466.67	1,283.89
60,000.00	New York Central & Hudson River R. R. Co. 5% Three Year Gold Coupon Notes. Due February 1, 1910	Feb. 2, 1907 (\$5,000.00)	Feb. 1 & Aug. 1	59,700.00	500.00	3,000.00	500.00	3,000.00
50,000.00	The City of New York Registered 3½% Corporate Stock for replenishing the Fund for Street and Park Openings. Due May 1, 1954.	Apr. 3, 1907	May 1 & Nov. 1	44,750.00	729.17	1,750.00	729.17	1,750.00
50,000.00	Pennsylvania R. R. Co. 5% Three Year Collateral Gold Notes. Due March 15, 1910	Apr. 3, 1907 (\$10,000.00) Aug. 7, 1907 (\$40,000.00)	Mar. 15 & Sept. 15	49,262.50	104.17	2,500.00	104.17	2,500.00
70,000.00	Northern Pacific, Great Northern, Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R. Co. Collateral Trust 4% Joint Bonds. Due July 1, 1921	July 2, 1907	Jan. 1 & July 1	64,711.52	700.00	2,800.00	700.00	2,800.00
20,000.00	Central R. R. Co. of New Jersey, General Mtge. 5% Bonds. Due July 1, 1987	Aug. 7, 1907	Jan. 1 & July 1	24,500.00	250.00	1,000.00	250.00	1,000.00
100,000.00	Union Pacific R. R. Co. 20 Year 4% Convertible Gold Bonds. Due July 1, 1927	Oct. 11, 1907 (\$35,000.00) Feb. 7, 1908 (\$58,000.00) June 11, 1908 (\$7,000.00)	Jan. 1 & July 1	85,629.13		1,939.13	1,000.00	2,939.13
55,000.00	Chicago, Indiana & Southern R. R. Co. Consolidated Mtge. 4% Bonds. Due January 1, 1956	July 10, 1908	Jan. 1 & July 1	49,912.50			*550.00	495.00
26,000.00	Atchafson, Topeka & Santa Fe Ry. Co. Transcontinental Short Line First Mtge. 4% Fifty Year Gold Bonds. Due July 1, 1958	Sept. 3, 1908	Jan. 1 & July 1	34,505.00			*260.00	80.89
\$10,811,000.00	Total			\$10,762,953.93	\$172,454.18	\$526,013.66	\$175,097.52	\$528,422.89

\* Includes interest to date of purchase.

The treasurer has submitted at each meeting of the executive committee statements of receipts and expenditures which were printed and sent to all trustees. These statements, together with the report of the auditing firm just quoted, give a complete account of the financial operations of the Foundation for the period covered by this report.

THOMAS MORRISON CARNEGIE

*October 18, 1908.*



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